DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 269 571 CE 044 039

AUTHOR	Landers, Keneston, Comp.
TITLE	Enchanging at the Crossroads...Research and Practice. Program and Proceedings for the Annual Adult Education Research Conference (27th, Syracuse, New York, May 23-25, 1986).
INSTITUTION	Syracuse Univ., N.Y.
PUB DATE	May 86
NOTE	374p.
PUB TYPE	Collected Works - Conference Proceedings (021) -- Reports - Research/Technical (143)
EDRS PRICE	MF01/PC15 Plus Postage.
DESCRIPTORS	*Adult Education; *Adult Learning; Adult Literacy; Educational Policy; Educational Practices; *Educational Research; Postsecondary Education; Program Evaluation; *Research Methodology; *Research Needs; Research Opportunities; Research Problems; *Research Tools; Research Utilization

ABSTRACT

These proceedings contain 58 papers. Selected brief titles are: "Teaching Reading in Advanced English to Adult Chinese Students" (Bao); "Analyzing the Training of Trainers and Adult Educators" (Boshier); "Knowledge Utilization in Social Work Practice" (Baskett); "Adult Education in the U.K." (Bright); "Developing Media Literacy in Adults" (Brookfield); "Ideological Orientation and Attitudes toward Professionalism among Adult Educators" (Brown); "Self-Directed Adult Learning" (Caffarella, O'Donnell); "The Psychosocial Development of Women" (Caffarella, Olson); "Adult Education and Social Equality" (Cervero, Lin); "Adult Education and Cultural Determinism" (Clarke); "Two Successful Prison Education Programs" (Collins); "The Canfield Learning Style Inventory" (Conti, Fellenz); "Measuring the Social Environment of Adult Education Classrooms" (Darkenwald, Valentine); "Models of Adult Participation in Informal Science Education" (Dimmock); "The Psychosocial Content of Teacher Talk" (Dirkx); "Literacy Usage among Older Adults" (Fisher); "Clandestine Learning among Slaves" (Gainey); "McClusky's Concept of Margin for Predicting Adult Dropout" (Garrison); "Open Learning" (Haffenden); "Serving Adult High-Risk Students" (Haskins); "Deterrents to Participation in Adult Basic Education" (Hayes, Darkenwald); "Adult Education and Government Repression in the U.S., 1919-1920" (Hellyer); "Adult Learning Styles: Auditory, Visual, and Tactual-Kinesthetic Sensory Modalities" (Hoffer); "Literacy Voluntarism" (Ilsley); "The Identification and Management of Student Stress" (Jones); "Locus of Control and Values of Adult Learners in Schools of Business and Education" (Londoner, Linder, Bauer); "Grassroots Computer Education" (Ludden); "Adult Readers of Fiction" (Mathney); "Innovative Learning" (McIntosh); "New Students and Returned Students" (McLaren); "Black Re-Entry Women" (Meyer); "Education in the Workplace" (Munnelly); "The Small Adult Education Centre" (Pemberton); "Women's Learning: A Perspective from Jungian Individuation" (Rannells); "Forces Influencing Women's Decisions to Return to School as Undergraduates" (Ross); "Learning about Leadership from Experience" (Rossing, Russell); "Workers' Cooperatives: Freirean Opportunity in the Workplace" (Schulman); "Librarians and Self-Directed Learners" (Smith); "Building

Inductively-Derived Planning Theory" (Sork); "Learning How to Learn: Adult 'Eductive' Learning" (Stanage); "Social Transformation through Nonformal Education" (Stalker-Costin); "Locus of Control Expectancies of Two Groups of Older Adults in Relation to Participation" (Strickland-Drobnies, Korhonen); "Equipping Adults for Learning: Participation Training" (Stubblefield); "Adult ESL Program Holding Power" (Tanner); "The Influence of Learning Style and Teaching Style on Achievement among Nontraditional Health Professional Students" (Welborn, Conti); "Perspective Transformation and Male Spouse Abusers" (Williams); "Assessing Impact of Literacy Education Programs" (Copeland, et al.); "The Ends and Means of Adult Literacy Education" (Hiemstra, et al.); "Using Research on Women to Reshape Concepts about Learners and Learning" (Karlovic, et al.); "Exploring the Value of Aging" (Hanson, Rugh); "Entering a Nursing Home as a Life Transitional Period" (Parsons). (MN)

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Conference Date:

"EXCHANGING AT THE CROSSROADS
...RESEARCH AND PRACTICE"

May 23 - 25, 1986

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PROGRAM AND PROCEEDINGS
FOR THE
TWENTY-SEVENTH ANNUAL
ADULT EDUCATION RESEARCH CONFERENCE

MAY 23-25, 1986

SYRACUSE UNIVERSITY
SYRACUSE, N.Y.

Compiled by:

Keneston Landers

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Welcome to the 27th Annual Adult Education Research Conference at Syracuse, University. We hope that your stay will be memorable and professionally rewarding. As you progress through the conference, you may have questions that you need to have answered. Should you have questions please look for someone with an orange name tag who will try to help you.

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ADULT EDUCATION RESEARCH CONFERENCE
MAY 23-25, 1986
SYRACUSE UNIVERSITY

CONFERENCE AT A GLANCE

FRIDAY, MAY 23, 1986		LOCATION
8:00 A.M.-8:30 P.M.	Registration Opens	Hall of Languages, Lower Level
10:00 A.M.-1:30 P.M.	Open House Reception	101 Hall of Languages
1:30 P.M.-2:30 P.M.	Opening Session Welcome Steering Committee Report International Guests "Future of Research on Adult Education" Arlon Elser, Program Consultant, Kellogg Foundation	Gifford Auditorium
2:45 P.M.-3:45 P.M.	Paper and Poster Sessions	
	1. Simpson, E.L. & Supapidhayakul, S. (p. 243)	111 Hall of Languages
	2. Boshier, R. (p. 7)	202 Hall of Languages
	3. Hellyer, M.R. (p. 134)	114 Hall of Languages
	4. Fisher, J.C. (p. 94)	105 Hall of Languages
	5. Gadbow, N.F. (p. 100)	110 Hall of Languages
	6. Tanner, J.E. (p. 291)	205 Hall of Languages
	7. Aagaard, L.J. (poster session, p. 352)	115 Hall of Languages
3:45 P.M.-4:00 P.M.	Break	Hall of Languages, Lower Level
4:05 P.M.-5:05 P.M.	Paper and Poster Sessions	
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	2. Smith, J.C. (p. 249)	114 Hall of Languages
	3. Sork, T.J. (p. 255)	105 Hall of Languages
	4. McLaren, J. (p. 182)	111 Hall of Languages
	5. Hayes, E. & Darkenwald, G.G. (p. 130)	202 Hall of Languages
	6. Bao, X.M. (p. 1)	205 Hall of Languages
	7. Aagaard, L.J. (poster session continued p. 352)	115 Hall of Languages
5:05 P.M.-6:45 P.M.	Evening Meal Break	
6:45 P.M.-8:15 P.M.	Concurrent Symposia (2)	
	1. Copeland, H., Cookson, P.S., Fellenz, R.A., Ploetz, G. & Winterbauer, M. (p. 333)	107 Hall of Languages
	2. Karlovic, N., Meyer, S., Persico, C., & Luttrell, W. (p. 345)	207 Hall of Languages
8:30 P.M.-9:30 P.M.	Dean's Reception	Lowe Gallery
9:45 P.M.-onward	"PUB" (cash bar)	TBA

SATURDAY, MAY 24, 1986

8:00 A.M.-12:00 noon	Registration	Hall of Languages, Lower Level
8:30 A.M.-9:30 A.M.	Paper Sessions	
	1. Mathney, C.D. (p.171)	105 Hall of Languages
	2. Clarke, G.S. (p. 61)	205 Hall of Languages
	3. Persico, C.L. & Heaney, T.W. (p. 213)	114 Hall of Languages
	4. Rannels, J.S. (p. 219)	110 Hall of Languages
	5. Munnelly, C. (p. 201)	202 Hall of Languages
	6. Bright, B.P. (p. 19)	111 Hall of Languages
9:30 A.M.-9:45 A.M.	Break	Hall of Languages, Lower Level
9:50 A.M.-10:50 A.M.	Paper and Poster Sessions	
	1. Rossing, B. & Russell, R. (p. 231)	105 Hall of Languages
	2. Baskett, H.K. (p. 13)	202 Hall of Languages
	3. Jones, C.J. (p. 152)	110 Hall of Languages
	4. Meyer, S. (p. 188)	205 Hall of Languages
	5. Welborn, R.B. & Conti, G.J. (p. 303)	114 Hall of Languages
	6. Parsons, M. (poster session, p. 354)	111 Hall of Languages
	7. Semtner, E. & Langenbach, M. (poster session, p. 355)	115 Hall of Languages
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	2. Miller, N. (p. 194)	110 Hall of Languages
	3. Moser, K. (p. 195)	202 Hall of Languages
	4. Collins, M. (p. 66)	205 Hall of Languages
	5. Haskins III, R. (p. 124)	114 Hall of Languages
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	7. Semtner, E. & Langenbach, M. (poster session (continued, p. 355)	115 Hall of Languages
12:15 P.M.-2:15 P.M.	Annual Luncheon and Business Meeting Business Meeting Graduate Student Research Award	Schine Center
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	6. Cervero, R.M. & Lin, H.C. (p. 55)	205 Hall of Languages
	7. Wang, S., Sun, S.L. & Lin, W.	115 Hall of Languages
3:30 P.M.-3:45 P.M.	Break	Hall of Languages, Lower Level

3:45 P.M.-5:45 P.M.	Recreate/Refresh/Rejuvenate	
	A. QUALOG Demonstration	1916 Room, Bird Library
	B. Recreation Options	QUAD & Hall of Languages
	C. Informal Discussions	Hall of Languages
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	3. Stubblefield, H.W. (p. 285)	114 Hall of Languages
	4. Stanage, S. (p. 267)	110 Hall of Languages
	5. Hiemstra, R., Hayes, E., Snow, B., Ilsley, P.J. & Valentine, T. (this symposium will run until 8:45 P.M., p. 339)	107 Hall of Languages
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	2. Ilsley, P.J. (p. 146)	110 Hall of Languages
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	4. Martin, L.G. (p. 165)	105 Hall of Languages
	5. Haffenden, I.G. (p. 118)	111 Hall of Languages
	6. Strickland-Drobnies, B. & Korhonen, L.J. (p. 279)	114 Hall of Languages
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	5. Sork, T.J. (p. 261)	105 Hall of Languages
	6. Ross, J.M. (p. 225)	205 Hall of Languages
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TEACHING READING IN ADVANCED ENGLISH TO ADULT CHINESE STUDENTS

XUE-MING BAO
Northern Illinois University*

Abstract Implications for teaching English to Chinese adults are drawn from 1) contrastive analysis of logographic/alphabetic writing, 2) literature review, 3) empirical evidence provided by Chinese students.

Statement of the Problem

In recent years, China has increased exchanges rapidly with western countries in the fields of culture, education, trade, science and technology. Since English is the most common language used in many exchange programs, China badly needs large numbers of people with a mastery of English at universities and colleges, elementary and secondary schools, research institutes, industry, trade and commercial enterprises, and travel agencies. English programs have become so popular in China that there are more Chinese than Americans learning English today. In terms of the needs and characteristics of adult Chinese students, "What to teach?" and "How to teach?" are the two basic questions that need to be addressed.

Methodology

This was an exploratory and descriptive study which intended to draw implications for teaching reading in advanced English to adult Chinese students at Night College, East China Normal University (ECNU) in Shanghai, China. The data gathered for this study were from the following three sources:

A. Contrastive analysis of Chinese logographic/English alphabetic writing systems. Some features in the graphic, phonological, semantic and syntactic systems of Chinese and English languages were compared and contrasted in order to draw implications for what should be emphasized in teaching English reading to adult Chinese students.

B. Review of literature related to the foundation of reading. The organizing constructs used in the review were drawn from psycholinguistics and contrastive linguistics. The first provided a framework for investigating the nature of reading process and the second for understanding the potential difficulties for adult Chinese students learning to read in English. The existing methodologies for teaching reading were reviewed in order to provide the practical background for the utilization of instructional methods.

C. Empirical evidence provided by adult Chinese students. Questionnaires were sent to 28 third-year English major students who were randomly selected at Night College, ECNU. A total of 93% of the students returned the questionnaires which focused on th implications for setting up learning objectives, criteria for chosing English reading materials and appropriate instructional methods.

---

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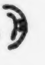
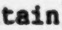
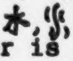
Description of Data

A. A number of interesting differences were found through the contrastive analysis of Chinese logographic/English alphabetic writing systems.

1) Differences in graphics. Each written symbol represents a word or concept in Chinese while the written symbols represent phonemes in English. When adult Chinese students learn to read in English, they experience the process of shifting from the logographic system to the alphabetic system. For example, when a modern pictographic character "日" (sun) is taught, the students would be given an ancient pictographic character ⊙ to help them imagine a picture in the character. The following characters are taught in the same way: 月,  (moon); 山, (mountain); 水,  (water); 目,  (eye); 木, (tree) (Ding, 1951). When an ideographic character is taught, the students will be given certain explanations to help them determine the meanings. For example, if a stroke is added on the top of the character 木 (tree), the character will become 末 (the tip of the tree). Likewise, if a stroke is added at the bottom of the character (tree), the character will become 本 (the root of a tree). This kind of imagination is important to help students develop their vocabulary in Chinese. When learning to read in English, adult Chinese students are not able to superimpose their skills of recognizing Chinese characters. They have to learn completely new skills.

When people learn to read in English, they are not asked to imagine any pictures in the words because English written words represent spoken words. There are three traditional theories of word recognition in English: whole-word identification, letter-by-letter identification, and an intermediate position involving the identification of letter clusters, usually "spelling patterns" (Smith,1971).

2) Differences in phonology. Chinese and English both have a number of the same phonemes such as /i/,/u/,/ei/,/ai/,/au/,/p/,/t/,/k/,/m/,/n/,/l/,/f/,/s/. However, Chinese doesn't have English phonemes such as /æ/, /ɔ/,/ɔɪ/,/ʌ/,/v/, /θ/,/z/,/ʃ/,/ʒ/,/r/,/tʃ/,/dʒ/,/j/; while English doesn't have Chinese phonemes such as -i/ɿ,ʅ/, ü/y/, e/ɤ/, j/tɕ/, q/tɕ'/, zh/ts/, ch/ts'/, z/ts/, c/ts'/, h/x/, x/ɕ/, sh/ʂ/, r/ʐ/. The rest of the English and Chinese phonemes are different in one way or another.

The tone is crucial in signifying the distictive meaning of words (Suen,1979), For example,

妈 /ma/ "mother" (high level) 麻 /ma/ "hemp" (high rising)
马 /ma/ "horse" (low rising) 骂 /ma/ "scold" (low falling)

Unlike the pitch used as primary phonemes in Chinese, the features of pitch appear in English as secondary phonemes chiefly at the end of sentences, as in the contrast between a question (at four o'clock?) and an answer (at four o'clock.) (Bloomfield,1933).

3) Differences in semantics. The semantic meanings of both Chinese and English characters are mostly revealed by their structures. There are meaning and sound radicals in Chinese characters. The meaning and sound radicals are mainly made of pictograms and ideograms. For example, the sound radical 分 fēn (to divide) combining with meaning radical 心 xīn (heart), becomes 忿 fèn (anger). Apparently different in sound, 分 fēn also occurs e.g. in 盆 pen (basin, pot), in which the meaning radical is 皿 ming (a dish). Although there is no universal logic to the combination, the meaning radicals can still be helpful to figure out the rough categories to which the words belong. This phenomenon is very similar to the ideas of word roots in English. For example, in the word phonograph, phono refers to sound, and graph refers to write, where you get the word record-player from sound and write.

4) Differences in syntax. According to Chao (1968), the basic sentence structure of the subject-predicate in Chinese is often a topic-comment relation rather than an actor-action relation. A typical sentence might be 酒喝不喝? jiǔ hē bù hē? "(As for) wine, (do you) drink (or) not drink?" The words in parenthesis are added in English. The answer might be 酒不喝 ,烟抽 jiǔ bù hē, yān chōu. "Wine not drink, tobacco smoke." To paraphrase: "I don't drink wine, but I do smoke." Thus Chinese does not require the dummy actors so common in English, as in "It rains." (Chao,1968; Taylor,1976).

It can be observed that the differences in the graphic, phonological, semantic and syntactic systems between Chinese and English languages need to be taken into consideration when adult Chinese students learn to read in English. The differences may be the possible causes of difficulty for them and may affect their learning strategies.

B. Through the review of the important books and journals on psycholinguistics, contrastive linguistics and teaching methodologies, the following theories were found to be relevant to the development of English reading instructions and programs for adult Chinese students.

1) Reading is a multi-process activity which involves psychological, sensory, perceptual, developmental, skill-development, individually-oriented, dynamic, emotional and thinking processes. All these processes are highly interrelated but identify the different aspects of the nature of reading (Otto, et al., 1974). Reading has its four distinctive and fundamental characteristics -- purposeful, selective, anticipatory, and comprehensible (Smith, 1982). The cognitive domain of reading requires the utilization of a hierarchy of abilities, that is, memory, translation, interpretation, application, analysis, synthesis and evaluation while the affective domain of reading recognizes the development of attitudes towards the values of reading (Zintz, 1970). Reading is the means of enriching and enlarging the foundation of oral language. Therefore, a good program in reading capitalizes on the interrelationships among listening, speaking, reading and writing (Ruddell, 1974). The main factors that causes reading problems are poor motivation, lack of background experience, egocentricity and inappropriate readability (Moffett, et al., 1976).

2) According to Brown (1980), a contrastive analysis hypothesis, deeply rooted in behaviorism and structuralism, is developed to predict the difficulties a second language learner would encounter. The strong version of th contrastive analysis hypothesis believes that those elements that are similar to the native language will be easy and those elements that are different will be difficult. The weak version of the contrastive analysis hypothesis advocates that prediction of difficulties in learning a second language can be made by observation, intuition and experience. The moderate version of the contrastive analysis hypothesis emphasizes the generalizing nature of human learning. A systematic approach to contrastive analysis scans the differences in structure in search of sources of interference and predicts that specific errors will occur from specific conflicts. An error analysis approach to contrastive analysis collects lists of errors students make, and then trys to describe the conflicts between the systems that give rise to such errors.

3) Major skills in the teaching of reading in English include word recognition skills, comprehension skills, and questioning skills (Smith, 1969, Barrett, 1972). Study skills that are most helpful in reading English are SQ3R, namely Survey, Question, Read, Recite, and Review (Robinson, 1946). Oral reading skill is important and should be given special instructions. Teaching specialized vocabulary is the key to the development of content reading skills (Shepherd, 1978). Learning a language and studying the literature written in

that language are different activities. The former paves the way for the latter while the latter reinforces the former (Broughton, et al., 1978). Transforming texts makes a fine follow-up to reading. It can motivate reading in the first place, then use reading to launch other worthwhile activities (Moffett, et al. 1976).

It can be seen that effective reading programs and instructions for adult Chinese students need to be built on the theories of psycholinguistics of reading, contrastive linguistics and teaching methodologies. These theories provide the rationale as for why some of the activities need to be carried out and why some of the problems may occur.

C. Empirical evidence provided by adult Chinese students showed their characteristics, reading interests and learning problems.

1) Characteristics. A majority of the students were English teachers at elementary and secondary schools. Some were written English translators, clerks and workers. They wanted to study English for improving their working capability, for getting pleasure, for seeking better jobs, and for understanding western countries. Many students had learned English by using several approaches. For example, they might have studied mainly through self-taught means but, meanwhile, also followed radio or TV English programs. The students took virtually the same courses during the years at Night College, ECNU. They took the courses of English listening, conversation, reading, writing, grammar, translation, modern Chinese and world history. At the end of their three years' study, about 70% of them learned about 3500 English words. They covered all the basic English grammar. More than 60% were able to read simplified novels, unabridged short stories, newspapers and magazines. About 20% were able to read unabridged novels, plays and biography and 12% were able to read poems. More than 30% of the students had many, about 50% had few while about 20% had no opportunities to use English in their work.

2) Reading Interests. More than 50% of the students were interested in reading unabridged short stories and novels, newspapers and magazines. More than 30% of them were interested in reading simplified short stories and novels and biography and 20% were interested in reading plays and poems.

3) Learning Problems. A majority of the students considered their major problems in the study of English were insufficient time, lack of English reading materials, and lack of chance to speak English. Some thought their problems were: no foreign teachers of English, no qualified Chinese teachers of English and poor reading programs.

Conclusions

The above sources of data yielded the following three categories of implicatons.

A. Implications for teaching. According to the contrastive analysis of Chinese logographic/English alphabetic writing systems, if the teachers of English are aware of the fundamental differences between Chinese and English, they would be in a much better position to help their adult Chinese students learning to read English effectively. As for the graphic differences, teachers may encourage their students to recognize English words by featural information and "spelling pattern" rather than have their students imagine pictures in the words. As for the phonological differences, phonics, in conjunction with other word recognition skills, is a tool for achieving efficiency in reading English. For understanding the meaning of words in two languages, the meaning radicals are essential in Chinese while root-words, prefixes and suffixes are important in English. It is most necessary for adult Chinese students to develop English word structure analysis skills in order to be independent readers. When adult Chinese students process English sentences, they need to get used to the actor-action meaning to sentences in English, especially the dummy subjects in English sentences such as "It rains." "It is nice." "It goes well." The differeces between Chinese and English syntax may affect the way Chinese and English people express themselves and the way they think. This awareness is especially important for adult Chinese students to comprehend difficult English reading materials.

According to the contrastive linguistic theories, both teachers and students need to be aware that either different elements or similar ones in Chinese and English could be possible causes of their difficulties. To some extent, students' learning problems can be detected by systematic comparison and error analysis approaches. Through comparison and contrast of Chinese and English, adult Chinese students will become conscious of not only how to overcome their learning difficulties but also how to avoid using Chinese-like English.

According to the psycholinguistic theories on reading, the students need to develop cultural insights of western society through reading and other means because a lack of cultural background knowledge can be a major factor in causing reading difficulties. It is necessary for both teachers and students to be aware of the psycholinguistic nature of reading processes. Guided by the fundamental theories on reading, teachers would become capable of providing good reading programs and instructions while the students would become efficient and independent readers.

According to the methodologies for teaching reading, while it is important and useful for the students to do reading comprehension activities at literal and interpretive levels, e.g., reciting and paraphrasing, they also need to be guided to do more at critical and creative levels, e.g., making judgement, evaluation and application. The students need to be involved in as many class activities as possible so that they would become more active in reading comprehension and have more opportunities to talk and share their views. Teachers should try to have the students develop their major reading skills and other related study skills consciously so that the students would be able to transfer the skills they learn in reading classes to their future individual reading practices.

According to the empirical evidence provided by the students, the reading materials selected for teaching reading in advanced English need be in a variety of forms. The students are interested in reading original works by English writers rather than just simplified reading materials. The reading textbooks need to contain detailed explanations, for example, background information and vocabulary study, and sufficient exercises so that the students are able to comprehend their texts without spending too much time on consulting other references. In recognizing the students' various purposes of learning English, their individual needs should be considered in the teaching of reading, for example, the assignments would be designed not only to develop, reinforce and evaluate the students' reading comprehension skills but also to be useful in themselves for students' practical uses or for their own enjoyment. Due to the fact that there are basically three kinds of jobs for the Chinese students who are English majors at university--namely English teachers at different school levels, oral interpreters, and written translators--it would be useful to provide the students with job-related activities.

B. Implications for teacher training. The contrastive analysis of Chinese logographic/English alphabetic writing systems showed that it would be necessary for the teachers of English to get linguistic training in both English and

Chinese languages in order to teach English reading effectively to adult Chinese students. The students' learning problems revealed that the Chinese teachers of English lacked the proper training in teaching and the reading programs were not well developed. The teachers needed to be trained in fundamental theories on reading and teaching methodologies so that they would be able to organize their teaching effectively and to develop reading programs adequately.

C. Implications for future research. It would be interesting to study how much knowledge of the fundamental differences between Chinese and English languages does a teacher of English need in order to teach adult Chinese students to read English effectively. Would this knowledge make any differences in teaching English reading? It would be helpful to do follow-up experimental study to measure the effectiveness of the reading programs and instructions developed under the teaching implications of this study as contrasted with the ones which are not.

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CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK FOR ANALYZING THE TRAINING OF TRAINERS AND ADULT EDUCATORS

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The adult education movement has to recruit and retain well-qualified personnel and yet resist the urge to encumber itself with ossifying and other undesirable aspects of professionalization. As adult education becomes less marginal and is adopted as an instrument to facilitate attainment of social, economic and cultural goals, it is too important to be left to untrained amateurs, now matter how gifted. Indeed, Commission II at the Fourth UNESCO (1985) International Conference on Adult Education, cited the need to "mobilize and train sufficient professional personnel to discharge the multifarious tasks involved in enabling adults to learn" as the "biggest challenge" of the future. Nothing was more important than training. There are many opinions about but little research pertaining to the characteristics or training of adult educators. Most attention is on the learner. The adult educator is somehow supposed to look after him or herself.

Many enter adult education through the legendary back door and do not realize they are part of the field. This creates special problems because "training" has to help practitioners improve their knowledge and skills but also bring unity to the field. Another complication is the fact nearly all adult educators work in settings where adult education is not the primary purpose of the employer. Education is usually just one of many instruments used to attain noneducational purposes. Considered separately or together these factors create problems for training.

The situation is further compounded by the fact most adult educators are parttime helpers whose primary affiliation is to some other occupation or social role. The challenge this situation poses for training can be understood by contrasting it to the education of children. Schools are usually staffed by a principal and teachers who received preservice training, have opportunities for inservice education, and generally follow a well-ordered career. Adult education occurs in a bewildering variety of settings where there is no clear career path. Because piano teachers, village craftspeople, the massive operations of the folkschool, university extension or popular education are all part of the adult education enterprise, it is difficult to study career patterns of adult educators in different settings. Moreover, when cultural and national differences are considered the situation becomes even more complex.

A MODEL TO CLASSIFY ROLES AND FUNCTIONS

There has been a continuing preoccupation with the training of adult educators but exhortations emanating from international conferences and statements of need often founder because of a reluctance to build theory. The purpose of the paper is to explore a model first developed to provide a conceptual anchor for a special issue of Convergence on the training of adult educators. It has cross-cultural generality and is a heuristic device to help identify the content of, as well as the processes used, for training adult education workers. The intent of the model is not to diminish communalities that pervade the training of all adult educators, nor to diminish the extent to which socio-cultural factors shape training content and processes. It merely provides a framework within which to consider issues that impinge upon the training of those in different parts of the field who occupy different roles.

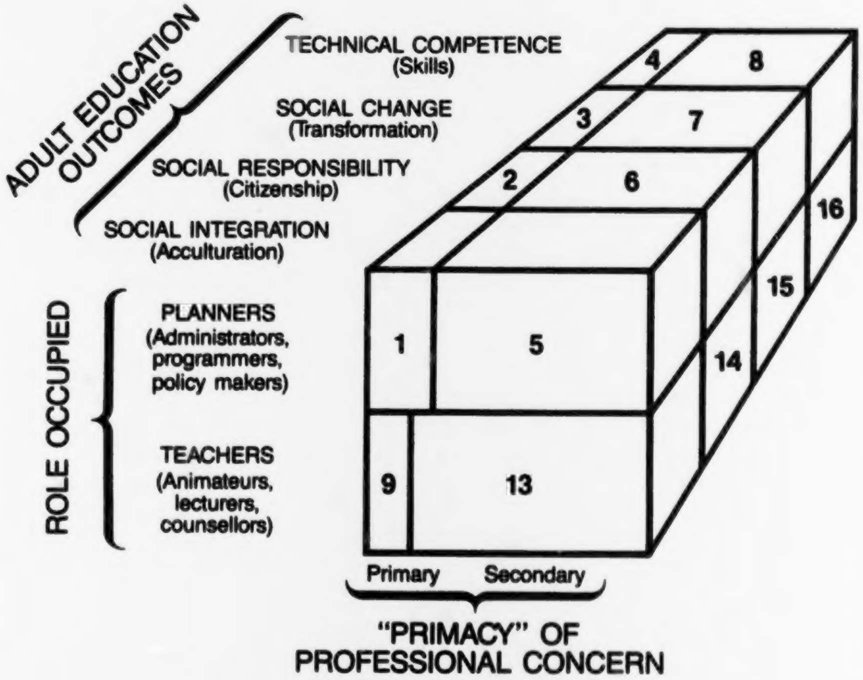
ADULT EDUCATION OUTCOMES
TECHNICAL COMPETENCE (Skills)
SOCIAL CHANGE (Transformation)
SOCIAL RESPONSIBILITY (Citizenship)
SOCIAL INTEGRATION (Acculturation)
ROLE OCCUPIED
PLANNERS (Administrators, programmers, policy makers)
TEACHERS (Animateurs, lecturers, counsellors)
4
8
3
7
2
6
16
15
1
5
14
9
13
Primary
Secondary
"PRIMACY" OF PROFESSIONAL CONCERN

Fig. 1. Model to classify adult educators according to outcomes sought, role occupied and "primacy" of concern

Fig. 1 classifies adult educators according to outcomes engendered by the education they sponsor or work with, the role they occupy in the field (planner, teacher) and whether they have adult education as a primary or secondary professional concern. These variables, and their interactions, profoundly influence processes used, and content embodied in training. The model shown here is embedded in the socio-economic context in which the training occurs and can be used to highlight issues and problems pertaining to the training of adult educators encompassed by each of the 16 cubes. Thus, what distinguishes training needed by program planners, irrespective of settings in which they work (top slice) from that needed by teachers (bottom slice) ? Or, what are the distinguishing characteristics of training needed by planners and teachers involved in education for social integration (front slice) as compared to those building technical competence (back slice) ?

The model is presented to highlight issues pertaining to the training of adult educators in the 16 cubes. This is comparable to a situation where a researcher employs analysis of variance to distinguish main from interaction effects. To what extent would the character of training provided to educators encompassed by cube 1 be shaped by the fact they are program planners ? To what extent would it be shaped by their involvement with a setting where the aim is the social integration of learners ? To what extent would it be influenced by the fact adult education is a primary professional concern ? Or, more importantly, to what extent would the character of the training be influenced by a two-way interaction (of social integration outcomes and being a planner) or a three-way interaction (social integration x planner x primary professional concern) ? Some countries have a higher ratio of full to parttime personnel than others, and adult or popular education in some parts of the world is more oriented to social change (e.g. Latin America) or social integration (e.g. Canada) than others. But irrespective of whether people, agencies, or entire countries, manifest "high" or "low" scores on each of the variables in Fig. 1, they appear to be influential determinmants of training in many countries. None of this means other variables do not impinge on the training of adult educators. Any model is a reified and thus only one view of reality. The best way to clarify all this is to consider each variable in turn.

Adult Education Outcomes

With regard to "outcomes", the position adopted here was in some ways impelled by the same forces that fuel competency-based education (Mitchell & Spady, 1978). There is a widespread belief in some parts of the world that education is an expensive business that yields dubious and often invisible benefits. Indeed, in some parliaments, politicians brag about their lack of education. As well, authorities have become more interested in explicit rather than vague outcomes produced by education. The move away from vague goals to explicit outcomes has made educators more accountable and sensitive to social, technological and other changes that create educational needs. Moreover, as adult education becomes less marginal, and is adopted as an instrument to ameliorate present and future problems, it will need to focus on outcomes rather than just processes employed to accomplish them. The outcomes shown in Fig. 1 arise from broad sets of societal expectations that create a need for adult education. The expectations can be operationalized as "characteristics" adults should possess if they are to be part of and participate in a society that is orderly, productive and attractive to its members. Adult education is an instrument that helps learners acquire characteristics that help satisfy or change societal expectations. Working through individual learners there are four major contributions adult education can provide.

1. Evoke and support social integration among individuals, within organizations, cultural groups, nations, and different parts of the world. Social integration outcomes are concerned with acculturation.
2. Nurture each person's sense of social responsibility and awareness of consequences that flow from his or her behaviour whether undertaken as an individual or as part of a group. Social responsibility outcomes are concerned with citizenship.
3. Develop within individuals a critical understanding of problems, and build skills, knowledge and attitudes required to foster social change, particularly where social justice is sought. Social change outcomes concern transformation.
4. Facilitate the building of technical competence so men and women can create, either individually or in groups, new material goods. Technical competence outcomes are concerned with skills.

Role Occupied

Adult educators can also be classified according to roles they occupy or functions they perform. Although terminology varies from culture to culture, nearly all work as planners or teachers. Since 1960 there has been a worldwide increase in the number of adult education planners (organizers, administrators). In many settings there are insufficient resources to sustain both a planner and a teacher so one person will occupy both roles. Planning is a crucial part of the adult education process that stems from the nature of its clients and its democratic ethos. Whereas preadult educators develop "curriculum" (based on a discipline or subject-matter) adult educators are more inclined to plan "programs" based on the needs of individuals, organizations and communities. Adults bring considerable experience to educational settings. The planner must be familiar with relevant theory, know how to diagnose needs, translate them into program goals and select appropriate methods. If necessary, a planner must also know how to implement a program, facilitate participation, keep people motivated and evaluate outcomes and processes. Many planners do not work directly on programs. They are involved with budgetting, hiring staff, or formulating policy. Teachers work in a variety of formal and nonformal settings but all are engaged in a direct or indirect relationship with adult learners. They labour to convince people that old dogs can learn new tricks in a collaborative, enjoyable, and fulfilling way. In some settings the term "teacher" is avoided because it evokes memories of school. For this and other reasons the teacher of adults is variously known as an animateur, tutor, facilitator, trainer, advisor, resource manager or counsellor.

"Primacy" of Professional Concern

The extent to which adult education should be run by people for whom it is their primary or secondary professional concern has always been debated in international forums. Today, there is a group affiliated to Basic Choices who have misgivings about the social commitment of fulltime Deans, Directors and Principals of adult education organizations. They fear that North American adult education is being taken over by fulltime "professionals" intent on promoting themselves by foisting "lifelong schooling" on a hapless populace. Members of this group fear that adult education is becoming a "business" and want to restore a sense of social purpose.

But while there are complaints in the United States about "control" exercised by fulltime adult educators, operations in other parts of the world are inhibited by a shortage of personnel willing to make adult education their primary professional concern, because of a lack of public funds and a clearly defined and attractive career structure. Public authorities have come to realize that adult education is an essential corollary of or prerequisite to socio-economic and cultural health, but many refuse to establish posts for fulltime adult educators. They largely rely on parttime workers for whom adult education is a secondary professional concern, temporary appointments or, in many instances, the services of some hard-pressed official already burdened by other responsibilities. More people now have adult education as a primary professional concern than at any other time. But of the total number of adult education workers, they are a small minority. In the United Kingdom, the ratio of part to fulltime adult education teachers was 175:1 at the time of the Third (1972) UNESCO World Conference. In Commission II at the Fourth UNESCO International Conference a delegate from an unidentified industrialized country claimed there was only one "fulltimer" for every twenty "parttimers" (UNESCO, 1985, p. 34). In just about every part of the world most adult education workers are parttime. For them, adult education is a secondary professional concern. This has immense implications for training.

TRAINING CONTENT AND PROCESSES

The model provides a framework for classifying adult educators and examining questions concerning training "content" and "processes". In the language of multiple regression, to what extent does "role occupied", the "primacy" of professional concern, and the outcomes sought by the adult educator, influence "content" they should work with and "processes" to be employed during training ? Where does most of the variance (in "content" and "processes") reside - in the nature of the outcomes sought, in the role occupied, or in the primacy of concern ? There are 16 cubes or locations in the model. Although some training content and processes are common to each, all are unique and require a response tailored to the particularities of each location. Thus a teacher for whom adult education is a primary professional concern, working in settings where technical competence outcomes are sought, should learn about content and experience training processes in some respects different to those created for a planner or teacher involved with social change.

The three independent variables (outcomes, role occupied and primacy) all have separate and conjoint effects on the dependent variables - training content and training processes. Primacy probably has the greatest impact on training processes as it is difficult to involve people who have adult education as a secondary professional concern in formal courses or degree programs. "Outcomes" and "role occupied" also affect the character of training processes but probably have their greatest impact on "content". Despite constraints impinging on workers for whom adult education is a secondary professional concern, and implications these have for training processes, they need the same content as colleagues for whom adult education is a primary concern. The content may be covered in a more accelerated or truncated way when employed with those for whom adult education is a secondary concern but will involve the same topics and theory as that used with "primary concern" people. The primacy of concern has massive effects on the amount (or quantity) of training that can be provided, but should not alter the quality of the experience provided. Those for whom adult education is a secondary concern should thus undergo training which is qualitatively the same as, but quantitatively different, from that given to those for whom it is a secondary concern. In other words, the "secondary concern" get less than the "primary concern" people but both groups are exposed to the same topics and theory. In an ideal world "secondary concern" people working in hospitals, trade unions, business, government, prisons, churches, the armed forces, the media, voluntary organizations, statutory boards and other places, would be trained in a way that is quantitatively and qualitatively the same as that provided for those for whom it is a primary concern. But in the absence of structural innovations, such as paid educational leave, those who have adult education as a secondary concern will continue to get less training than those for whom it is primary concern. It is probable that the content used to train those for whom adult education is a primary concern will often be the same as that used with "secondary" workers. It is the amount (the quantity) that varies, not the character (or quality) of the content. Returning to Fig. 1, and the language of multiple regression, it can now be seen that the content and processes of training are dependent variables. To what extent does the role occupied (planner, teacher) by an adult educator, and outcomes sought in settings where they work, shape the character (i.e. the "content" and the "processes") of their training ?

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KNOWLEDGE UTILIZATION IN SOCIAL WORK PRACTICE:
Toward A Substantive Theory of Professional Learning

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STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

Doubt has been expressed about the efficacy of continuing professional education (C.P.E.) and staff development. The impact of C.P.E. has been questioned (W. H. O., 1973; Laxdal, Jennett, Wilson, and Salisbury, 1978; Green and Walsh, 1979; Knox, 1979; Gosnell, 1980). The predominant assumption in C.P.E. that individual change is the only purpose of educational intervention has been challenged (Gregg and Van Mannen, 1973; Boshier, 1978; Day and Baskett, 1982; Cervero, 1984). Research has found that C.P.E. is a relatively minor player in professional learning (Tough, 1978; Curry and Putnam, 1981; Rymell, 1981; Williams and Hamilton, 1983).

PURPOSE

In light of the uncertainty about the value of C.P.E., an 18-month field study was undertaken to obtain data about how professionals actually use knowledge in every day practice. This paper focuses on elements of an emergent model of professional learning derived from analysis of the field data.

METHODOLOGY

Grounded theory provided the theoretical underpinnings of the study (Glaser and Strauss, 1967; Schatzman and Strauss, 1973; Bogdan and Taylor, 1975). A review of the literature had ascertained that a well- developed model or theory of professional knowledge utilization did not exist and a substantive theory (Glaser and Strauss, 1967), was called for.

Two typical social work units (one public and one private) comprising a total of 24 social workers were the main foci for data collection. Additional subjects, and other units, were sampled as theoretical sampling and saturation dictated.

To the degree possible, the concepts of complimentary methods and triangulation (Denzin, 1970) were embraced. Data collection methods included observation, participant observation, structured and unstructured interviewing, and the use of archival materials. Interviews and meetings were taped wherever possible and systematic field notes maintained. Taped material was transcribed.

DESCRIPTION OF DATA

Data were analyzed over a three year period beginning from entry into the research sites. The method of constant comparison and the process of confirmation and disconfirmation of emergent categories and properties (Glaser and Strauss, 1967), were used throughout the data collection and analysis phases.

The highlights which emerged from the data analysis are presented in the form of hypothesis with short supportive descriptions.

1. Social Workers use six types of knowledge

Most literature about professional education and learning in social work refers to knowledge, skills and attitudes as the kinds of knowledge used by social workers. Practitioners had difficulty distinguishing between these and preferred simply to call what they did, "practice." This study suggests that there may be as many as six types of knowledge used by social workers all of which involve "knowing about," "knowing how to," and "doing." In this study these types of knowledge were labelled: (a) knowledge about resources and how to get them, (b) knowledge about subsystems and how to access them, (c) knowledge about how to get knowledge, (d) knowledge about self and how one learns, (e) formal knowledge and how to apply it, and (f) coping knowledge.

2. Social Workers obtain knowledge from seven "Sources"

Colleagues, supervisors, external and internal print, client files, formal education, clients, and other professionals all provide knowledge for social workers. Both observations and direct interviews substantiated that these practitioners use all of these sources at different times and to varying degrees.

3. Knowledge "Sources" provide different kinds of knowledge

Not all "Sources" provide all types of knowledge equally. Knowledge about resources and how to get them seems to come mostly from peers, supervisors, client files, and internal print, such as manuals, directives and memos. On the other hand, formal knowledge seems to come primarily from external print such as books, journals, papers, and from such formal education as prequalifying courses or C.P.E.

4. There are distinguishable phases in knowledge acquisition and application

Social Workers can be observed going through a process which ranges from initial awareness of knowledge through to the application of that knowledge in problem-solving in the field. When asked to identify a major recent professional change and then to trace the origins of that change, professionals could recall being aware of the requisite knowledge, which they had recently used, as long as ten years ago.

5. Uses of "Sources" varies by the kind of knowledge required and the phase in the knowledge process

In retracing the history of a recent professional change, different sources seem to be involved at different phases of knowledge acquisition and application. Clients, one's peers, supervisors and other professionals were more likely identified as contributing to the application stage whereas books, journals, and formal education could be identified as more prominent in the acquisition stages.

6. Knowledge "Sources" serve different functions

Figure 1 provides a conceptual schema of the relationship between "Sources" and Functions.

"Sources" do not simply provide information. "Sources" also seem to help professionals confirm or disconfirm ideas or possible actions, reflect upon issues, ideas or actions, provide emotional support, and in some cases, provide protection. Subjects were observed getting such information as details of a procedure, the whereabouts of a form, or information about the effectiveness of a particular referral agency. Manuals, outside professionals, colleagues, or supervisors were all approached for that kind of information. Usually, however, these "Sources" serve to help the professional in other ways. Some "sources" were used to confirm an opinion, a possible action or the authenticity of certain information. Workers "bounced-off" or "shot-the-breeze" with colleagues and supervisors about certain ideas. At other times, or often in the same conversation, they could be seen" venting" or "getting things off their chest" and their colleagues could be seen supporting them without a high degree of judgement.

7. Nineteen individual and environmental variables operate to influence knowledge utilization in the field

   Some variables seemed to be related to the receptivity of the subjects to acquire or apply knowledge; role, values, professional beliefs, job stage, general life factors, personal style, time and workload, kind of problem, and complexity of required knowledge. Other variables seemed to relate to the opportunity of the subjects to acquire or apply knowledge; organizational purpose, nature of client, task, leadership and power, organization and structure, agency beliefs, time and workload, availability of sources, climate, and availability of resources. These nineteen variables could be seen to both positively and negatively affect the ability of the worker to obtain and apply knowledge.

8. Four necessary but insufficient conditions must be in place to ensure knowledge use

   Figure 2 conceptually presents this notion. To use knowledge, practitioners must not only acquire knowledge ("about" and "how to"), they must also apply it ("do it").

   The nineteen variables play various parts in constraining or supporting knowledge use and application.

9. Knowledge utilization by Social Workers in the field is a highly complex activity

   When considering how social workers acquire and apply knowledge one must consider types of knowledge, functions of knowledge, sources of knowledge, phases in knowledge acquisition and application and individual and environmental variables which constrain or encourage knowledge utilization. Four necessary conditions, receptivity to acquire, receptivity to apply, opportunity to acquire, and opportunity to apply must be supportive to ultimate knowledge use. All of these factors seem to operate in a multiple, complex and interacting manner making prediction and control almost impossible.

IMPLICATIONS AND CONCLUSIONS

In examining these preliminary data, one can make a number of observations. The first is that of the ability to convey the absolute complexity of professional learning and change in the field is hampered by the limitations of the present language available to describe this process. A new and perhaps more metaphoric language may be necessary.

Second, the researcher was left with an impression that professional social workers carry with them at all times, untold and often unconscious agendas upon which they are working. Many of these agendas never reach resolution. Many are highly complex while others may be relatively simple. These agendas interact and in the process, transform each other. Some agendas are sub-agendas of a larger overriding set of agendas. For example, a relatively simple agenda to learn how to operate a computer is part of a larger agenda of fitting into a new and changing work environment which in turn is related to becoming more effective at serving one's client or surviving one's job.

Third, there is a growing literature which supports some of these proposals and hypothesis. Knox (1979c) has identified ten individual and ten situational influences on obsolescence and professional proficiency. Baskett (1984) has identified twenty-one variables noted by others as influencing professional knowledge acquisition and application.

Fourth, this study sheds further light on doubts raised by a number of authors about the effectiveness of the present model of C.P.E. (Knox, 1979b; Gebhardt-Taylor, 1982; Cervero, Rottet and Dimmock, 1986). If further study confirms what we are seeing in this exploratory study then we may require a revised model of continuing professional learning which better characterizes it as learner-driven, field-based, complex, situational, individualistic, and mediated by a number of powerful individual and environmental forces. The program planning model which permeates much of the C.P.E. literature (Sork, 1983; Sork and Buskey, 1986) bears frightfully little resemblance to the process of knowledge acquisition and application as viewed from the field.

Considerable work must be undertaken to substantiate or disconfirm the hypotheses set here. Furthermore, a clearer understanding as to how these multiple variables actually operate to enhance or decrease knowledge use in the field is needed. Whether or not similar conclusions would be found by study of other professional settings remains to be seen. It is speculated that there will be variations between professions, (Baskett, 1984).

In conclusion, one is left with a profound impression that the reason many impact studies are not conclusive is because most C.P.E. programs have no or little control or influence on the major factors and forces which determine professional knowledge use,a point reinforced by such other authors as Zober, Seipel, and Skinner (1982), and Fox, (1983).

FIGURE 1

Conceptual Schema of the Relationship of Knowledge Source and Function by Primary and Secondary Importance

	FUNCTIONS				
Knowledge Sources	Information or Ideas	Confirmation/Disconfirmation	Reflection	Emotional Support	Protection
Peers	P	P	P	P	S
Supervisors	P	P	P	P	P
External Print	P	S	P		
Internal Print	P				
Client Files	S		P		
Formal Education	S	S	S		
Clients	S	S	S	S	
External Professionals	P	P	P	P	

P - Primary S- Secondary

NOTE: Weightings of Primary and Secondary importance were assigned arbitrarily by the observer based on the overall impressions received. The usefulness of this schema is limited by that fact, however, it serves as a means by which one can visualise the notion of interrelations between functions and sources.

FIGURE 2

Conditions and Influential Variables for Knowledge Acquisition and Application

	Knowledge Acquisition	Knowledge Application
Receptivity of Professional	Receptivity to Acquire	Receptivity to Apply
	Role	Role
	Values	Values
	Professional Belief	Professional Belief
	Job Stage	Job Stage
	General Life Factors	General Life Factors
	Personal Style	Personal Style
	Time and Workload	Time and Workload
	Kind of Problem	Kind of Problem
	Complexity of Knowledge	Complexity of Knowledge
Opportunity Provided by Environment	Opportunity to Acquire	Opportunity to Apply
	Organizational Purpose	Organizational Purpose
	Nature of Client	Nature of Client
	Task	Task
	Leadership and Power	Leadership and Power
	Organisation and Structure	Organisation and Structure
	Agency Belief System	Agency Belief System
	Time and Workload	Time and Workload
	Availability of Sources	Availability of Sources
	Availability of Resources	Availability of Resources

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ABSTRACT

Analysis of study of adult education in UK in terms of structure of knowledge and theoretical and practical approaches. Concludes need to adopt latter.

THE STUDY OF ADULT EDUCATION IN THE UK

INTRODUCTION:

The study of adult education as an academic discipline within the UK is a relatively recent event, formally occurring in the 1960's. The provision of such courses was, and still is, the responsibility of university departments of adult and/or continuing education and is confined to postgraduate and higher degree levels of study.

The present paper is concerned with the nature and status of the knowledge-base comprising adult education as an academic discipline and therefore attempts to initiate a debate concerning the epistemological definition of adult education itself. The inevitable relationship between content and method implies that different definitions of content invoke different methodologies and vice versa. The present paper can be regarded as attempting to specify the existing form of the content-method relationship within adult education and to offer a possible alternative form of this relationship.

The major propositions of the present paper are;

i) the content of adult education as an academic discipline is relatively undifferentiated and indistinguishable from the more intrinsic disciplines which comprise it and from which its knowledge content is derived, and

ii) adult education implicitly incorporates and adopts the academic, theoretical discipline model of these intrinsic disciplines and fails to recognise that it is an essentially different epistemological enterprise.

To the extent that these propositions can be demonstrated to be credible, serious implications emerge concerning the nature and status of its knowledge, the role of the subject specialist and the need for a major reconceptualisation and redefinition of adult education in terms of the epistemological content and the methods that delineate it.

ADULT EDUCATION AND THE STRUCTURE OF KNOWLEDGE

Within the terms of the traditional, vertically hierarchical approach to knowledge (e.g. Hirst,1974; Phenix,1964; O'Connor, 1973), adult education as a subject can be regarded as a derived composite body of knowledge utilising the knowledge generated from other and relatively more intrinsic disciplines (e.g.

History, Philosophy, Sociology, Psychology, Economics). It is also further derived in that it also incorporates knowledge from disciplines which are themselves derived (e.g. Organisation and Management, Education). On the basis of this conclusion two further conclusions are suggested.

Firstly, the relationship of adult education to other disciplines (i.e. inter-disciplinary/external relations) and the relationship between the different activities that constitute it (i.e. intra-disciplinary/internal relations) are opposite to and contradict the nature of these relationships characteristic of the more intrinsic disciplines it comprises. The latter possess a high degree of both inter-disciplinary independence and intra-disciplinary dependence (i.e. shared conceptual approaches). Because adult education comprises intrinsic independent disciplines its intra-disciplinary character is marked by a high degree of independence between the knowledge systems that constitute its internal epistemological and methodological activities. Conversely,because it does comprise other disciplines its inter-disciplinary relationship to those other disciplines is an epistemologically dependent one. It can be argued that inter and intra-disciplinary relationships have a direct bearing upon the source of knowledge (content) and the activities involved in acquiring and transmitting it (method).

The second conclusion that may be formulated is that whilst it is legitimate for derived disciplines to utilise knowledge coming from more intrinsic sources, this use must represent an activity which organises, synthesises, refines, elaborates, inter-relates and contextualises the derived knowledge relative to a specified focus of interest in a manner which clearly indicates and justifies its existence. Mere regurgitation of derived knowledge is insufficient to establish the required distinctiveness of a derived discipline focussing upon a particular interest or activity. The latter can be regarded as either theoretical or practical in character (Hirst,1974).

It is tentatively suggested that adult education as an academic discipline is epistemologically too dependent upon its source disciplines and consequently fails to operate upon its derived knowledge in a distinctive manner. The evidence supporting this view will be considered further below.

ADULT EDUCATION - INTRINSIC, THEORETICAL DISCIPLINE MODEL

Invariably the structure and detailed content of courses in the study of adult education are either implicitly or explicitly based upon the subject specialisms that comprise it in a manner directly relatable to those source disciplines. Course titles often contain reference to a specialist subject which prefaces the phrase "Adult Education",(e.g. The Psychology of Adult Education, The Sociology of Adult Education, The Philosophy of Adult Education etc.). More seriously, the detailed content of courses can be held to indicate the literal and undifferentiated manner in which adult education uses the academic content of its source disciplines and adopts a methodology to illustrate this fact. Basic concepts reside within source disciplines but their required elaboration and organisation would appear to be either not undertaken at all, undertaken inadequately or undertaken from within the source disciplines themselves rather than adult education. The psychology of adult education,for example, can be regarded as a relatively undigested formulation of virtually every major basic concept within psychology itself. The recent developments in terms of life-span development(Baltes et al,1980) and gerontology have all come from outside of adult education. Few researchers within adult education would appear to be developing theoretical adult education refinements and elaborations of mainstream psychology in an epistemologically distinctive manner. To the extent that this is true of the other composite disciplines within adult education it indicates a dependence upon and utilisation of their content in a relatively undifferentiated manner.

A further illustration of this is the emphasis that adult education would appear to place upon its subject specialists. Typically members of departments are referred to as the epartment's psychologist, sociologist, philosopher etc. in the manner in which members of different intrinsic discipline departments address each other i.e. it regards its staff as representatives of the intrinsic independent disciplines. From this position it can be argued that adult education obviates the need to be concerned with the nature and delineation of its subject matter. As an academic community adult education would appear to do no more than to specify what subject specialisms it should include rather than the detailed content and its elaboration. The detailed content of courses is left to the responsibility of the respective subject specialist who is not provided with any detailed indication as to what those courses should contain i.e. what comprises a distinctively adult educational orientation relative to their subject specialism. This approach totally ignores the pervasiveness of the term "adult education" and the fact that every major conceptual approach within source disciplines could be potentially relevant. Similarly but paradoxically, because it emphasises its subject specialisms it both assumes and ignores the different approaches and methodologies adopted by each and their resulting independence and avoids the necessity of attempting to provide an overal relational framework within which its composite subjects may be viewed, inter-related and assessed. This is consistent with its adoption of the traditonal intrinsic theoretical discipline model and the traditional independence between these disciplines. Other evidence such as the emergence of subject specialist interest groups within the formal structure of SCUTREA (The Standing Conference on University Teaching and Research in the Education of Adults) and the absence of an undergraduate degree level course in adult education, can be interpreted as illustrating the adoption of the academic theoretical model by adult education and its resulting failure to define adult education in an epistemologically distinctive manner.

The problem does not involve the question whether such a distinctive epistemological niche can be created by adult education. There are many arguments against both the need for and the feasibility of defining adult education in such a distinctive manner. The real problem would appear to be that adult education is unaware of the existence of a problem concerning its epistemological definition. It seems more concerned with its administrative rather than its epistemological definition and can be interpreted as relying on the traditional academic, independent, theoretical discipline model from which its content and method are derived, and which enables it to ignore its own essentially different epistemological character.

To the extent that this position is tenable several implications emerge. Firstly, adult education would appear to place the subject specialist in a contradictory situation by, on the one hand, ignoring the nature of the knowledge produced by source disciplines and requiring the specialist to function as a generalist, and on the other hand, failing to specify the nature of its own theoretical and epistemological activity. This leaves the specialist in an epistemological limbo of divided loyalties and frustrated intellectual concerns. Secondly, its failure to establish a body of theoretical knowledge sufficiently distinct from its source disciplines threatens academic standards and questions the validity of its academic existence. If it is accepted that adult education has not successfully delineated the theoretically distinct subject of adult education, it follows that it does not exist and accreditations cannot be awarded in it. Proceeding from this, and thirdly, it also follows that adult education does not provide an adequate theoretical basis for understanding from the point of view of the students enrolled on courses in it.

ADULT EDUCATION - A PRACTICAL DISCIPLINE?

Two forms of this question are possible. Firstly, can adult education's current conceptualisation of itself be regarded as practical in character? The above analysis attempted to demonstrate that adult education implicitly regards itself as a theoretical activity and as such models itself upon the more intrinsic theoretical disciplines. This entails an inherent contradiction which necessarily leads to its failure to establish distinctive theoretical adult education. On this analysis the answer to this question is in the negative.

The second form of the above question is, irrespective of how adult education currently conceptualises its activities can it be regarded as a practical activity in other terms? The answer to this question is in the affirmative and is based on the following arguments. Adult education can logically be regarded as falling within the semantic remit of education generally. Many commentators upon education (mainly primary and secondary education) regard it as an essentially practical activity (O'Connor,1973; Hirst,1974; Castell and Freeman,1978), therefore adult education can be similarly regarded. Two reasons support the view that education is a practical activity. Education and teaching are traditional crafts that pre-date the emergence of the social sciences and the possibility of scientifically informed educational theory. Education involves major social and human welfare issues which necessarily entail value judgements. Because scientific theory cannot be currently integrated in a rational manner with value judgements education is identified as a practical, value-ridden activity whose ends are directly related to human social, economic and moral concerns.

Castell and Freeman(1978) offer a radical analysis of education in their suggested paradigm of a socio-practical field within which pivotal emphasis is placed upon the direct and intended impact upon human welfare of any body of enquiry. Education is regarded as such a body of enquiry and its relationship to human welfare is held to have implications which place it in a totally different context relative to purely theoretical fields. The ends towards which the latter are directed are defined by theoretical structural considerations originating from within the theory itself. The ends towards which socio-practical fields are directed are held to be defined by significant social issues and problems originating and defined by the contingent and variable social context. Socio-practical fields are identified by their reference to purposeful action and practice directed towards solving contextually urgent problems and are not limited in substantive content by structural, theoretical concerns. Within this approach considerable emphasis is placed upon the identification of practical rather than theoretical problems by practitioners and the usefullness of any theory regardless of its academic status in resolving such problems.

In the context of adult education the relevance of the above would appear to be relatively obvious. Given the pervasive meaning of the term "adult education" and its importance in virtually every aspect of work and domestic life the teaching of teachers of adults (e.g. nurses, probation officers, marriage guidance counsellors, literacy workers, college lecturers, business managers etc.) and its relationship to human social issues is easily demonstrated. In addition, the fact that the majority of adult education's students are usually, and are often required to be, practitioners in the field suggests that adult education may be ignoring a potentially useful body of experience and an opportunity to expedite effective practical action and theoretical development. The latter suggests a paradox. Acceptance of adult education as a practical activity does not preclude or negate the existence and relevance of theory within it, but the context within which that theory exists and its purpose is totally different to that pertaining to purely theoretical disciplines. The existence of an inappropriate and perhaps impossible theoretical orientation produces poor theory, while conversely, a practical orientation may provide and require a more detailed specification of theory relating to adult education i.e. better theory.

The distinction between theoretical and practical approaches can be regarded, in terms of adult education, as a choice between a failed attempt to be purely theoretical or an as yet untried attempt to reorientate its theoretical approach within an essentially practical context. The purely theoretical enterprise within adult education has failed, or is at least inadequate, although it can still be regarded, within a practical orientation, as potentially useful. The practical enterprise has yet to begin. Because of its theoretical approach, adult education would not appear to grapple with the issues of theory and practice and the difficulty and importance of its own activity.

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DECODING TELEVISION: DEVELOPING MEDIA LITERACY IN ADULTS

This paper explores deterministic-hegemonic and oppositional theories of the influence of television on the development of adult consciousness, and reviews how media literacy might be developed in adults.

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If a central task of adult education is to help learners recognize and reflect upon the framers of meaning which have brought them to their current states of awareness, then a major domain in which educators should be involved is that of television. In the political realm, in particular, television is the chief means by which large numbers of American adults receive information on what issues, disputes and ideological interpretations are extant in this realm. Television has substantial power to shape the agenda of public political discourse, and to develop in viewers modes of analysis for exploring this discussion. Altheide (1985) uses the phrase 'media power' to describe this phenomenon.

Television is not a river of messages, symbols and images into which we occasionally dip, but rather an ocean in which we perpetually swim. We cannot isolate the effects of T.V. on behavior as if there was a linear, cause and effect relationship. Class allegiances, peer group relations, ethnic identity, familial circumstance, economic condition , bio-chemical and physiological factors - all these interact to form a complex mediatory frame through which individuals interpret T.V. messages. It is too simplistic, therefore, to say that someone voted for a Presidential candidate solely because of his or her T.V. appeal.

Television has penetrated contemporary consciousness to a remarkable degree. In adulthood, it is possible for many of us to chart the development of aspects of our political awareness through T.V. events which were, for some reason, significant in framing the way we perceived the political world. T.V. plays a crucial role in framing the context within which we define what are seen as significant issues and important problems in the political realm. Issues, disputes and estimations of political success or failure are frequently grounded in T.V. events such as televised press conferences, filmed confrontations between strikers (or demonstrators) and police, and interrogations of politicians. Geraldine Ferraro marked the 'real' start of her campaign with her successful press conference regarding a full declaration of her family's tax information. The recent Geneva summit was judged disappointing or successful almost solely in terms of the subtleties and nuances of gestures relayed in magnified form by T.V. How long did Regan and Gorbachev shake hands ? How close to each other did they stand ? Were their smiles mere twitching of the lips, or full blooded, teeth bared

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extravaganzas ?

T.V. helps create the framework within which political discourse occurs. It provides information on which viewers are expected to base their judgments of events, it offers an interpretative framework for understanding events, and opinions are provided from which individual viewers select those ideas which seem most to correspond to their own views of reality. The determination of what are 'newsworthy' events is largely in the hands of T.V. producers, directors and reporters. T.V. frames the context within which 'relevant' or 'important' issues are identified, it provides selected information on those issues, and it presents apparently 'objective' reportage.

Individuals are socialized into political culture (developing party allegiances, participating in local organizing, assimilating appropriate values and ideologies) in the family, neighborhood, school and workplace. By the time they reach adulthood, many people have already evolved their own entrenched attitudes, beliefs and interpretative frames concerning political matters. Barring cataclysmic revelations (as in Watergate) these are enduring. Political allegiances are frequently lifelong and become unquestioned givens in adult life. T.V. has little influence in this process of primary socialization.

As an agent of secondary socialization - a reinforcing factor - however, T.V. has an influence on two levels. First, it inevitably mirrors the dominant values of the society in which it is located. Views of the world and interpretations of political events considered too radical or strongly divergent from the values and beliefs of the mainstream culture, rarely receive expression. News broadcasts in the USSR and USA dealing with strategic arms limitations do not grant air time to politicians from the opposing country to speak directly to the civil populace, (indeed, it is for this form of direct address that terrorists will commit kidnappings or hijackings). The actions of each side are presented and interpreted for viewers from within the framework of the host culture's prevailing assumptions. Each side regards the other as ruled by an expansionist ideology, as bent on world domination, and as motivated by a cynical opportunism where peace initiatives are concerned.

Second, the logic of T.V. serves to operate in a more subtle, insidious manner to shape the way we come to understand and analyse political matters. It encourages us to view political issues, disputes and events in a simplistic, unidimensional manner. Issues rooted in ideological conflicts or strategic differences are frequently presented as personality conflicts. Policy questions are presented and explained in 30 or 45 second summaries in news broadcasts. Most worryingly, events within the political world are presented as if they were in a separate dimension, a twilight zone of unreality into which mere citizens cannot venture. A recent report on political education for adults noted the widespread belief that the framing of public policy was on the same level of non-interference to citizens as was the weather (Ridley, 1983).

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Viewing a series of reified images of political overlords on a T.V. screen obscures the connection between the individual's political powers and the actions of local and national leaders. Watching leaders from the superpowers discuss the relative strength of their nuclear arsenals sandwiched between commercials for deodorants and shows such as Wheel of Fortune or Entertainment Tonight inculcates an air of unreality to the viewer of political life. Learning about this life through a technology which cannot be comprehended encourages a sense of disconnectedness to the events portrayed. It fosters a belief that the proper status of citizen-viewers is one of passive observers, tuning in nightly amid game shows, situation comedies and soaps to discover how the world has been reshaped for us each day by our political masters.

It is all too easy, however, to grant to T.V. an inordinate amount of power and to fall prey to a pessiministic determinism whereby viewers are seen as passive dupes of cyncial producers who manipulate the consciousnesses of viewers through a steady diet of game shows and mindless situation comedies. According to this analysis, T.V. is a major business enterprise and only concerned, therefore, to broadcast programs which either uphold the values of the dominant capitalist society or divert people's minds from the inequities surrounding them. By this argument T.V. is a tranquilizing palliative designed to help those caught in the contradictions of advanced capitalism more easily to bear their poverty, unemployment and sense of alienation.

This analysis does not allow for the possibility of audiences being sufficiently critical to decode media messages sceptically; neither does it recognize that some of these alienated adults may simply ignore programs designed to lull them into uncritical stupefaction. Hall (1980) describes a number of ways in which programs are decoded by viewers who interpret messages from within the context of their own culture, economic situation and personal lives. Some adults exhibit negotiated codings in which credence is given to dominant values expressed in news broadcasts (for example, America needs a balanced budget) but which contrast these values with their own situations (for example, my local day care facility is being closed so I'll have to give up working). Others engage in oppositional decoding in which T.V. messages are interpreted from within a framework wholly different from dominant cultural values. An example of this would be a nuclear freeze activist who interprets every governmental mention of the need for deterrence and a strong defence budget, as indicative of the military-industrial complex successfully furthering its interests.

This view of T.V. as a cynical transmitter of dominant ideology which is uncritically assimilated by a stupefied audience is misleading and overly deterministic. It regards T.V. producers and directors as robotic automatons, working diligently to preserve the power of ruling elites. It denies the possibility of educators working to assist adults to analyse critically the power and influence of T.V. Hegemony - the manipulation by the dominant groups in society of 'common sense' ideas and values to support their position - is continually resisted, limited and altered by circumstances beyond the control of these groups. Kellner's (1979) analysis of emancipatory comedy shows how certain comedy shows challenge the values and institutions of the dominant culture. Programs such as Saturday Night Live, SCTV, Soap and Mary Hartmann and comics such as Lenny Bruce would be examples of this. Gitlin's (1983) study of Hill Street Blues shows how episodes in which assumptions and stereotypes of ethnic minorities and criminal sub-cultures were deliberately challenged, simplistic explanations of criminal acts were rejected, and neat resolutions to social problems abandoned, reflected the philosophies of the shows producers and writers. Similar comments may be made about the Lou Grant show.

T.V. production may be viewed as something of a psychosocial drama. News reporting of political life certainly mirrors dominant values, and only occasionally is there sustained criticism of prevailing social structures or governmental actions. The Glasgow Media Group (1982) have shown how T.V. news stresses views and interpretations of events supporting what producers believe to be a public consensus, and how alternative divergent or radical interpretations receive only limited exposure. Nonetheless, opposition and resistance is sometimes evident as producers, writers and directors attempt to produce programs displaying a stance critical of prevailing stereotypes or structures. Films such as Threads or The Day After (both dealing with the effects of nuclear war and shown despite government disapproval) and shows such as Sixty Minutes, Donahue and Nightline give air time for the expression of views critical of government policies, actions or representatives. Donahue, for example, recently featured President Daniel Ortega Saveeda of Nicaragua interviewed live in front of an audience of millions on prime time T.V. Dan Rather's interview with Fidel Castro on Sixty Minutes and Ted Koppel's Nightline broadcasts from South Africa (featuring direct conversations between black activists & white politicians not allowed in South Africa itself) are other examples of this kind of oppositional programming.

T.V. production, then, is not wholly static and manipulative. Advertisers and network executives certainly exercise great power over producers, directors, writers and performers (witness the cancellations of Soap and Lou Grant and the changes on Hill Street Blues). Yet oppositional programs are created which are powerful examples of critical adult education in action. They present viewers with ideas and interpretations which are critical of, and which contradict, governmental justifications for actions, societal structures and stereotypes.

Media Literacy

As defined in an earlier paper (Brookfield, 1985) media literacy is the possession by adults of a degree of critical awareness regarding the potential for oversimplification and manipulation inherent in T.V. Media literate adults are aware when simplistic readings are given of complex questions, when ideological disuptes are reported in terms of personality conflicts, when images are taking precedent over substantive discussion, and when the pursuit of apparent 'objectivity' is masking the presentation of a consensual viewpoint from which are excluded deviant or minority opinions. For adults to be politically knowledgeable citizens able to participate fully in democratic processes, the development of some degree of media literacy is essential. In Masterman's (1983) words, "in every sphere of life, knowledge of the mediated and constructed nature of media messages will need to be a part of the common stock of knowledge of everyone who is a democratic citizen in a democratic society" (p. 204).

One means by which this might be accomplished is for adult learning groups to undertake detailed analyses of how studio anchorpersons, interviewers, presenters and chairpersons function as mediators of debate and discussion. Panel discussants on shows such as Donahue do not typically address viewers directly in a full face camera shot. Instead, the presenter controls the interaction, directing the flow of questions, choosing which themes to explore further, and restating opinions originally uttered by discussants. Handron and Brookfield (unpublished paper) have undertaken such an analysis and shown how Donahue's behaviors in discussions, questioning habits, summations of views and selectively emphasizing audience members' questions are highly influential in shaping the format and content of the show.

Learners might also analyse T.V. texts for the ways in which the physical surroundings of interviews (whether they take place in quiet, well-lit boardrooms, on noisy factory floors, or picket lines) implicitly grant greater credibility to the expression of certain views. Learning groups might also study how narrative commentary and visual images are juxtaposed to create powerful messages. For example, what effect is created when a narrative commentary of the numbers, location and apparent causes of an industrial dispute (or demonstration) is accompanied by shots of pickets (or demonstrators) fighting with police, shouting at fellow workers (or counter demonstrators) and making clenched fists to the camera ? It is overly paranoid to conclude that news producers are in league with government, corporations or the police to discredit strikers and demonstrators. This use of provocative visual imagery is a function of the logic of the medium itself. 'Good' T.V. is thought to be that characterized by dramatic visual imagery. Interviews with union organizers who carefully elaborate their members' grievances, or studio based explorations of the merits of demonstrators' causes, are less dramatic (and hence less successful in T.V. terms) than film of clashes and confrontations. 'Talking heads' (studio interviews with individuals) take second place to location shots and tend to be longer and more complex, making them unsuitable for inclusion in news broadcasts.

One way learners can become familiar with this internal logic is to produce their own news reports. As VCR's become lower in price, it is possible for groups to construct short programs on local or even national political issues. Jarvis (1985) describes an exercise used in the British Open University where adult students are divided into three groups representing the news networks of Britain, the USSR, and the USA, and given a series

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of photos of a strike. They are then asked to prepare a news broadcast for the T.V. networks of their respective countries. Through careful editing of photographs and use of ideologically biased commentary, very different reports are prepared using the same materials. Such an exercise is a most effective way of alerting viewers to the culturally constructed nature of news broadcasts and political reporting.

The application of simple content analysis techniques to studying political reporting could be tried with learning groups. Group members might monitor a week's news broadcasts on the three major commercial networks. Different members could record the numbers of interviews with different parties to disputes, the kinds of explanations of events most frequently offered, the kinds of stories most prominently featured, the spokespersons most frequently appearing, and the way in which certain stories rose to prominence over the week before being replaced with newer items. Finally, techniques of autobiographical analysis might be used to develop media literacy. Through this technique adults are encouraged to recall moments when T.V. depictions of reality strongly contradicted their own experiences. In groups in which I have been involved, adults in their 30's and 40's can recall contrasting the gentle banter and affectionate interchanges between spouses characteristic of 1950's family comedies such as Leave it to Beaver and Ossie and Harriet, with their own memories of much less placid and affectionate parental relationships. Once the technique of learning to identify elements of dissonance between T.V.'s portrayal of family life and viewers' own experiences is practised, the possibility of attempting this form of analysis in the political sphere becomes very real. If the habit sets in of asking questions concerning the biases of producers of situation comedies, then it becomes easier to speculate on which stories are not considered newsworthy, which assumptions inform decisions to provide air time for the expression of certain views, whose interests are best served by how disputes are reported, and what explanations and interpretations might be offered of events which are alternative to those provided by reporters, commentators and presenters.

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Ideological Orientation and Attitudes Toward Professionalism Among Adult Educators

by Carol Dunn Brown

Abstract

Based on data on 518 adult educators, the study examines the relationship between attitudes toward professionalism and belief in the benefits of professionalism (professional ideology).

Statement of the Problem

Although the adult education occupation is young, its movement toward professional status has been consistent but not unchallenged. Some have argued that professionalism is detrimental (Carlson, 1977; Illich, 1975; Ohliger, 1974; Rothaus, 1981). While many in the occupation favor professionalism as a means of upgrading the field, serving the learner better, attracting funding, and recruiting capable practitioners (Campbell, 1977; Griffith, 1977), others assert that the professionalization of adult education results in a narrowed definition of adult education which threatens the "friends teaching friends" tradition (Carlson, 1977) and will lead to compulsory adult "schooling" (Ohliger, 1974).

Thus, there is a strong difference of opinion within the field. A recent analysis (National Alliance for Voluntary Learning, 1982) has pointed out that the difference of opinion is the result of a profound ideological split. The disparity is described as the two "worlds of adult education." In one, the central ideas are "institutions, 'professionalism,' and technology," while the other embraces "learners, empowerment, and democratization."

Whether or not the two groups debating professionalism define professionalism in the same way is not clear (Brown, 1984b). Lacking a precise definition, the extent of the ideological debate is not known, nor are there adequate empirical data to clarify divergent viewpoints. The purpose of the present study is to determine the extent of actual disagreement among adult educators and to examine the assumptions underlying the ideological debate.

Specifically, this research has three purposes:

1) To provide empirical data on the attitudes of adult educators toward professionalism in order to understand what they mean when they apply the term to their own occupation.

2) To clarify the relationship between ideological orientation and attitudes toward professionalism among adult educators belonging to professional adult education associations.

3) To determine whether demographic characteristics are associated with the ideological viewpoints of adult educators.

Methodology

The Adult Education Profile (AEP) measures adult educators' attitudes toward 19 dimensions of professionalism identified in the sociological literature (Brown, 1982; Brown, 1984a). The survey instrument examines as well the ideological basis of their views regarding adult education as a professionalizing occupation. For the purposes of the study, ideology is defined as the degree of belief in the benefits of professionalism.

Face, content, and construct validity were confirmed by a content validation study with six adult education practititioners. Reliability was established by computing a test-retest reliability coefficient of .99 for the total professionalism scores and .92 for the three ideology questions used to measure the ideology variable. Cronbach alpha reliability coefficients of .87 and .89 were determined for the same two variables.

The sample consists of 518 adult educators belonging to one of three professional associations: National University Continuing Education Association (NUCEA), American Association of Adult and Continuing Education (AAACE), and National Association for Voluntary Learning (NAVL). The three organizations were selected to provide representation of the ideological continuum, i.e. those on the one hand who opppose the developing professionalism in adult education and those on the other hand who believe it will enhance the work of adult education.

Description of the Data

Two variables were constructed--an ideology variable and professionalism scales computed on each of the 19 professional dimensions. Scores on the ideology variable and scores on the professionalism variables were compared.

On all but three dimensions, relationships between the variables are moderate to strong and statistically significant at the .01 level. Thus, the data show a strong association between ideological viewpoint and attitudes toward professionalism as measured by the AEP. Demographic variables add little to explain stance toward ideology and professionalism.

Conclusions

The study allows adult educators to be precise about professional referents which are important to the field. It confirms the true differences of opinion with regard to belief in the perceived benefits of professionalism. A relatively small (46 respondents), yet significant, group of adult educators reject both the notion of professionalism and the traditional model of professionalism, but 70% merely reject the traditional model.

It is clear that the current debate is not only a "pro" and "con" issue. A large number of adult educators believe in professionalism using an alternative professional model. Perhaps the term "professionalism" contributes to the problem. It may be more productive to discuss professional dimensions, professional ideology, and specific professional models. The data add clarity to the discussion between the "two worlds of adult education" by beginning to establish an empirical definition of the occupation.

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Self-Directed Adult Learning: A Critical Paradigm Revisited

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this paper is to provide an analysis of self-directed learning research, categorize the research, and offer suggestions for future directions researchers should follow in this area.

The methodology for the review was to first define the parameters for the study. Research was defined as data-based, as well as serious conceptual articles. The three major published reviews of literature (Tough, 1978; Mocker and Spear, 1982; and Brookfield, 1984b) served as the resource base, coupled with a computer search. Initial reliance was placed on these critical reviews and criticisms in order for this review to build upon existing analyses. A thorough review of the original sources were also completed.

The following research categories emerged from this review: verification studies (in the Tough tradition); nature of the method of self-directed learning (the how questions); nature of the individual learner (the who and what questions); nature of the philosophical position (perspectives on the process); and, policy questions (the role of the educator, institutions, and society). These categories have brought together many of the issues highlighted in the reviews of Mocker and Spear (1982) and Brookfield (1984b).

VERIFICATION

A number of criticisms have been aimed at the verification studies. These include: the populations are primarily middle class; the Tough schedule calls for probing and prompting which contaminates the findings; the subjects must primarily look back in time to reflect on their learning experiences, and that in general we have done enough verification.

While we would agree with Brookfield (1984b) that the verification studies have dealt with the middle class, we must also agree with Brockett (1985a) that evidence of self-directed learning among the "hard-to-reach" (many of whom are not middle class) population does exist. The Leean and Sisco (1981), Shackelford (1983), and Kratz (1978) studies serve as examples. The Shackelford study was the only one which could be found which dealt with the black population, and it produced a surprise. This population spent most of their self-directed learning time on projects dealing with home and family life, and not on projects designed to increase professional competence.

Different data collection mechanisms, other than the Tough instrument, should be explored. In this vein it is interesting to note that the Sexton-Hesse (1984) study did not utilize the probe and prompt technique and found a number of people with no learning projects. Boshier (1983) has specifically suggested one alternative technique, that of study participants using diaries to record present learning projects and thus reduce the prompting necessary for recalling past activities.

And so, to the critics who say "enough is enough," these researchers would concur that we have verified the existence of learning projects at least in the middle class residing in the United States and part of Canada and Great Britain. We have not yet verified the concept as fully among other social classes (Brookfield, 1984b) among different ethnic groups, or on a comparative basis with other countries (Tough, 1976).

NATURE OF THE METHOD

Research on the nature of the method of self-directed learning answers such questions as: how do adults go about planning their learning projects; how do they identify and use resources; and how can we improve or increase the competencies or skills needed for self-directed learning.

It appears that we have done serious work in conceptualizing the nature of the method, especially as evidenced in the work of Tough (1971, 1978), Knowles (1975, 1980), and Spear and Mocker (1984) but have not gone far enough in our empirical work. Our data-based studies have primarily addressed the type of resources used by learners, and have somewhat explored the type of planners used. Except for Tough (1971) and Spear and Mocker (1984), we appear to have little empirical evidence on how adults actually plan their self-directed learning activities. We also have little knowledge about how and where adults gain competencies in self-directed learning.

The Spear and Mocker (1984) secondary analysis of qualitative data gathered during open-ended interviews is particularly noteworthy in presenting an alternative conceptualization of preplanning among adults with less than high school education. They found that preplanning did not occur except in rare cases; yet, there was evidence of order and deliberateness in the learning effort. The authors drew the following inferences from their analysis: 1) the triggering event for a learning project stems from a change in life circumstances, 2) the changed circumstance provides an opportunity for learning, 3) the structure, method, resources and conditions for learning are directed by the circumstances, and 4) learning sequences progress as the circumstances created in one episode become the circumstances for the next logical step. Needless to say, the organizing circumstance is an exciting new aspect of self-directed learning, and an area which calls for further research.

Tough (1971, 1978), Penland (1979), Brookfield (1981), Spear and Mocker (1984), and Houle (1984) have cited specific problems that need to be addressed in relationship to the nature of the method. Tough (1978) has suggested that we need to do more work in gaining an understanding of the choosing, planning, and guiding steps that learners perform from the early stages throughout the entire learning project. Once these questions have been researched, we would then be in a better position to increase the adult's competency as a methodologist. He (1971) also highlights the need to collect additional data on each type of planner. Penland (1979) raised a more specific issue related to the type of planner. Should information brokers or learning consultants be used as resources to assist adults in the planning of their learning and if so, how?

Both Tough (1978) and Houle (1984) raise the question of how do we assist adults in finding and using resources. More specifically Tough (1978), Penland (1979), and Brookfield (1981), call for further study of the appropriate roles of groups in this process, with Tough focusing his concern on how self-help groups work; and Brookfield on voluntary associations.

Spear and Mocker (1984) suggest, based on their concept of organizing circumstances, four major areas for additional research: 1) the effect of the circumstances on the structure of the learning project; 2) the effect of the educational level on the impact the circumstances have on the learner; 3) the skills needed by individuals to find and use learning opportunities and resources in their life spaces; and 4) how learner's perceive the organizing of their projects based on decisions they made about those projects.

The nature of the method, then, appears to be deficient in furthering our understanding of how adults plan and organize their learning; in investigating the fellowship or collaborativeness among independent learners; in understanding how adults acquire and increase their efficiency and effectiveness in self-directed learning; and an elaboration of what our roles are as adult educators in this process.

It should also be pointed out while discussing the nature of the method, that Coolican (1974), Brookfield (1984b), and others, are questioning the nature of the end product, the quality of the learning. It would appear that the questions related to planning, organizing, and evaluating results along with competency studies, would work towards better analyzing the end product.

NATURE OF THE INDIVIDUAL

Research into the nature of the individual learner asks the who and what questions. Basically the category looks to an understanding of the individual's characteristics and styles in order to get a better feel for the learner. Seven sub-categories emerged from the review of literature in this area: demographic data, learning or cognitive style, readiness, life satisfaction, locus of control, psychological health, and locus of control.

Though the nature of the individual learner is a furtile area for research, the majority of the variables used in the studies in this category have been randomly chosen at best. The exception to this would be the research on an individual's readiness for self-directed learning. Numerous studies, primarily using the

Self-Directed Learning Readiness Scale (SDLRS) (Guglielmino, 1977), have been completed to ascertain adult readiness for self-directed learning Brookfield (1984b) has cautioned about the findings of studies using this scale as the scale may not be appropriate for certain groups of adults. Brockett (1985b) substantiates this criticism through research, showing that the instrument is very much oriented toward learning through books and schooling and thus may not measure adequately readiness for self-directed learning defined in alternative ways (such as learning by doing). We would agree with Brockett, however, that this does not mean we should cease using the scale; it means that we now have a better idea of what groups to use it with more effectively and for what purpose.

Not enough research has been completed related to the sub-categories of cognitive style, locus of control, life satisfaction, and psychological health to make any definitive statements about these areas as they relate to self-directed learning. What findings we have in these areas appear to be contradictory at best. In terms of future research related to these subcategories, Brockett (1985c) suggests that life satisfaction and self-directedness are correlated with the concept of independence. Would it then follow that by increasing an individual's readiness for engaging in self-directed learning, we would increase independence and so, increase life satisfaction?

In terms of building another research agenda for this category, the premise of viewing self-directedness in learning as a personality construct could be the cornerstone for a whole new line of research. Oddi (1984) has made a significant contribution in this arena. Her conceptual framework moves us from looking at self-directed learning as a mode of instruction, to looking at the concept as an attribute of personality which motivates the individual to continue learning through any number of methodologies. This broader framework offers direction for future studies, calling for investigating our entire conceptualization of what comes first: the skill to learn or the motivation to learn; and, what is the role of skills in relation to the broad view of self-directed learning as a personality construct. Does the pedagogical schooling of our citizens which features teacher control act as a negative influence on fostering self-directed learning; and, if so, can it be reversed? How does personality relate to the reversal?

NATURE OF THE PHILOSOPHICAL POSITION

This conceptual area addresses the philosophical orientation of the concept of self-directed learning from two very different perspectives. No actual research is found in the category; however, conceptual articles point to areas of concern and suggest research direction.

When self-directed learning is scanned through what might be referred to as one's philosophy of adult education, various theoretical perspectives take root and seem to guide the research or research questions. Mezirow and Brookfield in calling for internal change and critical reflectivity appear to be coming out of a humanistic or existentialist perspective. Their view is to look at the internal processes of self-directed learning; what it is that makes it different from other learning.

Houle appears to be coming more out of a tradition of liberal education and progressivism. Framing his thoughts in a life span perspective, he challanges adult educators to become aware of how the stages or phases of life unfold so as to be more alert to how the patterns of learning evolve, merge and/or change throughout a person's adult life.

Let us look at these perspectives more closely. When Brookfield (1985) follows up on the Mezirow concept of critical reflectivity, he asserts that this element is essential to true self-directed learning. He presents the idea that if learning projects are executed within the narrow confines of the learners previous thoughts and actions, then it is not a fully adult form of self-directed learning. To be truly adult, the techniques of self direction must include a critical analysis of existing values, beliefs, and social forms. In other words, it must include an internal change in consciousness. Let us point out before offering any criticism of the view, that we believe Brookfield is offering this definition, not as fact, but as a testable hypothesis.

The point of this criticism is that the concept of change in consciousness is out of a particular philosophy of adult education. Those who follow other philosophies, such a behaviorists, liberal or progressive would not agree to this narrow definition of learning. It is, however, a very testable hypothesis based on the assumptions of the humanistic perspective.

Continuing with this line of thought, Houle (1984) also presents good questions and testable hypotheses from the life span perspective. Houle hypothesizes five major patterns for weaving education into the design of life. They include: education as the entire purpose of life, education as a way of examining life, education as an inherent part of a complex pattern of life, education as mastery of all knowledge, and education as a way of preserving or protecting the State.

Following Houle's life span perspective, one can understand his criticism of the research which gives us a "still picture" of learning. The life span perspective calls for studying the patterns and how they evolve or change throughout the lifespan.

The point of this section is to applaud the questions raised by these writers as rich areas of future research in self-directed learning. Does a change in internal consciousness have to occur for self-directed learning to take place? These writers think not. However, the importance of this section, though not as straight forward as the others, is that theoretical discussions will not move educators from their own philosophical base. We must do the empirical research based on our own perspective; or, perhaps better yet, researchers with different perspectives need to collaborate in discovering the intersection points between philosophies and start building a new empirical base from there.

POLICY QUESTIONS

Conceptual articles on policy related to self-directed learning asks the questions: what is the role of the adult educator, what are the involvement parameters for educational institutions, and what does the concept of self-directed learning mean to society as a whole. It is important to note that while the questions have grown out of issues and concerns generated by empirical work, policy is still in an evolving conceptual stage. To our knowledge, there have been no data based studies in policy formation.

Policy questions need to be faced by researchers in adult education. Suggested studies would include: what help do adults want, when do they want it, does the setting or subject matter influence their perceived need for help. What moves a person from learning A to setting higher standards and engaging in the learning necessary for point B? How involved should we as adult educators be in individual self-directed learning? Should we be imposing our standards if the individual standards are not high enough? What are the satisfactions/dissatisfactions with the quality of learning? Should we be moving the individual toward societal rather than individual perspectives?

CONCLUSION

The authors conclude that the goal of the research at this stage in our knowledge should be a combination of a rich generation of experimentation and further theory building. More specifically, the following direction for future research can be highlighted:

1. Verification studies are needed using people from various social classes, ethnic groups and cultural backgrounds.
2. Nature of the method studies are needed for a better understanding of how learners plan and organize their learning, the types of planners used, and how competencies necessary for the self-directed learning are developed and enhanced.
3. Nature of the individual studies are a furtile area for further research. Viewing the concept as a personality construct is an especially exciting idea.
4. Nature of the philosophical position studies are needed by varyiny philosoplical perspectives and at the intersection points among perspectives.
5. Policy questions regarding the role of the adult educator, educational institution, and society are imperative.
6. There is a need to expand our repertoire of design and methodologies. Both indepth qualitative and more sophisticated quantitative studies are needed.

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THE PSYCHOSOCIAL DEVELOPMENT OF WOMEN: A CRITICAL REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

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Abstract: The purpose of this review was to critically examine models presently being used in the study of the psychosocial development of women.

There is an increasing interest in research related to the psychosocial development of women. To date, however, most models of human development have been generated from male-based research, and questions have been raised concerning their appropriateness for investigating the lives of women (Barnett & Baruch, 1978; Chodorow, 1971; Gilligan, 1979). The purposes of this review were to critically examine models implicit within investigations of the psychosocial development of women, and to assess the extent to which female-based models are emerging. Excluded from the review were theories of psychosocial development which posit male experience as normative (e.g., Erikson, 1973) and data-based studies utilizing all-male (e.g., Levinson, Darrow, Klein, Levinson & McKee, 1978; Valliant, 1977) or male and female subjects (e.g., Gould, 1978).

Models of Development From A Conceptual Base

All of the position papers reviewed considered how researchers should proceed, i.e., what assumptions they should make, and what research methods they should use. In particular, there is disagreement about whether it is appropriate to adapt models used to study male psychosocial development when investigating the psychosocial development of women. For three scholars, models, with some variation in timetable and life tasks, proposed with reference to male samples are appropriate when investigating the lives of women. Sales (1978) assumes that women's development does follow the same pattern of equilibrium and disequilibrium as found in men. Implementing this assumption, she describes a specific stage theory for women and identifies developmental tasks within each stage. Sales assumes that for women, as well as men, the primary goal of development is achieving autonomy or a separate sense of self.

Also implementing a male model, Simpson (1977) and Labe (1982) propose the process of individuation and separateness is a key issue in achieving an adult status. However, Simpson contends women spend more time in certain developmental stages than do men, and speculates that some women stay in the affiliative or generative stage as a form of escape. In comparison, Labe suggests women tend to complete an individuation process between 30 and 40 years of age, later than do men. She notes achievement through occupational and parenting roles and claiming distance from parents are springboards to an adult status for women.

Other scholars suggest existing theories are incomplete, i.e., that other sets of variables need to be considered when investigating female development. Notman (1979) proposes that special attention be paid to the interaction of biological and psychosocial dimensions (e.g. childbirth on work life) when studying the lives of women. Similarly, Rossi (1980) contends a life-span orientation should be expanded to include both biological and socio-cultural perspectives in order to consider the natural interplay of a variety of factors in the development of women. Finally, Targ (1979) suggests that the unanticipated events of women's lives, especially those of divorce and widowhood, be given particular attention when building theories concerning female psychosocial development.

In contrast, other scholars contend different models must be built to identify the unique patterns of psychosocial development for women. Chodorow (1971, 1974, 1978) observes that during early socialization females come to define themselves in relationship and connection to other people more than males do. She suggests the concept of "being" is central to women because they are the primary socializers and nurturers of children; in comparison, "doing" is primary within men's lives because of the centrality of their work roles.

The perspective that women's development is grounded to a greater extent in attachment and affiliation, rather than being formed solely by separateness and autonomy, is echoed by others (Bardwick, 1971, 1980; Gilligan, 1979; Miller, 1976). Miller (1976) claims the organizing principle for women's lives is doing for others, and thus women tend to place the needs of others first. Bardwick (1980) echoes this same sentiment when she describes women as more relational in orientation. Thus it is more difficult for women to control their own lives because they respond to the initiatives and directives of others.

Gilligan (1979) states that something crucial is missing from developmental theory: the perspective of women. According to Gilligan, an equally strong motive in human development is the need and capacity for intimacy and sharing. Developmental theory has identified the stages of growth toward autonomy but has ignored the evolution and fostering of an equally strong motive: the human ability to care, share and create community. Specifically, Gilligan (1979) suggests researchers: (1) not assume that existing models of adult development, which have been derived from a male model, are broad enough to depict human development; and (2) design studies to insure that the voices of women will be heard.

Thus, opinions about how to proceed when investigating the adult development of women reflect sharp disagreement. The remainder of this review will critically examine the extent to which researchers have either adopted a model based primarily on male experience, or have designed studies which detect the unique perspectives of adult women.

Empirical Studies:
Cross Validation of Studies Based on Male Models of Development

Of the 17 empirical investigations of the psychosocial development of adult women, eight have been cross-validation studies. Desjardins (1978) cross-validated the theory of Gould (1972). Despite intra-decade variations, Desjardins could not define exact stages of female development, signaled by specific age parameters. Although some similarities of patterns and themes were seen, he found major differences because of the issues of family demands and societal expectations. In general, Desjardins participants reported that relationships were a central aspect of their lives.

Seven of the eight cross-validation studies have utilized an all-female sample to investigate the generalizability of the theory of Levinson et al. (1978). Researchers have generally utilized the methodology of in-depth interviews. An advantage of the participant/observer methodology used in the majority of these studies is that it encourages disclosure; a disadvantage is that study results may be heavily biased toward discovery of what researchers expected to find. A further difficulty of the cross-validation efforts is that, with the exception of Murrell and Donahue (1982), all have failed to provide controls for level of occupational aspiration or attainment, or to provide comparisons across levels of ethnic identity. Instead, study participants have primarily been middle-class, Caucasian college students or graduates. In fact, only Zubrod (1980) utilized a stratified sample which included several socioeconomic levels. Because of major flaws in their research designs, the generalizability of the results of these studies is very limited. The following comparisons of results must be considered in light of these difficulties.

For the female samples investigated, the Levinson et al. theory was apparently confirmed in certain respects. Alternating periods of stability and transition were reported by participants in the efforts of Alexander (1980), Goodman (1980) and Stewart (1977). For example, Alexander (1980) found her respondents did experience the three broad stages that Levinson found for men: the Early Adult Transition, Getting into the Adult World, and the Age Thirty Transition. Also in apparent support of the Levinson et al. theory, age-related transitional periods were reported by Murrell and Donahue (1982) and Zubrod (1980). Participants in the latter study typically became more realistic in their thinking and their actions during their age 30 transition and explored such issues as occupational choices, child bearing (for those with no children), and the need for real intimacy in their lives. Zubrod concludes her participants came out of the age thirty transition with a greater sense of self and viewed their future as a time to develop themselves as individuals. Alexander (1980) also found the age-30 transition was pivotal, ie. that choices made from age 29 to 31 provided participants a greater sense of control over their lives. Other researchers have found the Levinson model applies within a different time-frame. Kahnweiler (1980) found issues typically explored by men during their 20s, in the Levinson et.al. sample, were salient for women in their 30s and 40s. Similarly, Zubrod (1980) found respondents in their 30s and early 40s became more autonomous and introspective, and in particular expressed a need to do something significant.

Although the Levinson et al. theory was confirmed in certain respects in cross-validation efforts, researchers typically found a number of differences between the reported experiences of their participants and those of the original, all-male sample. For example Stewart (1977) reported wide variability in participants' respective commitments to their marriage or career as sources of identity and Alexander (1980) found women seek a balance between the importance of work and the role of intimacy. On the other hand, Murrell and Donahue (1982) suggest that although few women reported plans for career advancement, women tend to select a preferred life-style of career-orientation, family-orientation, or a combination in their twenties. In general, a key assumption of the Levinson et al. theory was not confirmed for all-female samples: that a single pattern of occupational and family development characterizes all adults.

In contrast, Barner (1981) concluded the Levinson et al. theory cannot be extended to an all-female sample. During the mid-life transition Barner's respondents did not report an extreme level of questioning and dissatisfaction. Instead he found the youngest individuals, ages 27 to 32, reported experiencing the greatest amount of self-doubt. Thus, he suggests that cohort differences must be considered when investigating the psychosocial development of women, i.e., that differences which appear to be attributable to varied chronological ages may be a function of the time period during which a woman was socialized.

Female-Based Models of Psychosocial Development

Instead of the deductive approach, cross-validating a previously proposed theory, several researchers have utilized an inductive approach to theorizing. They have collected data and have begun to build theories with reference to their findings. The majority of these have been macro-efforts: women were asked to describe in their own language, primarily through in-depth semi-structured and structured interviews, issues of importance to them (Baruch, Barnett & Rivers, 1983; Black & Hill, 1984; Gilligan, 1977, 1980; Hancock, 1981; McLean, 1980; and Rubin, 1979). The remaining studies have been micro in nature and have considered a specific topic (Candy, Troll & Levy, 1980; Greenberg, 1980).

All of the inductive studies used author-designed interview guides or questionnaires; about half also included standardized instruments. Only half included women from diverse economic and educational backgrounds. Only one study (Gilligan, 1977) specified that the subjects represented a diverse ethnic background. Generally, controls for family life cycle stage and level of occupational identity were not provided for in these studies. Notable exceptions to this were the Baruch et al. (1983) and Rubin (1979) studies which addressed both issues, and the Black and Hill (1983) study which controlled for the family life cycle. Another trend in the inductive studies was their tendency to study women at mid-life. Again exceptions are noted with Gilligan's (1977) work with younger women and the Candy et al. (1980) study which incorporated a broad age range. Thus as in the cross-validation efforts, with the exception of the Baruch et al. study (1983), the generalizability of most of these inductive efforts is limited.

Gilligan investigated the moral development of young women (1977, 1982), ages 15 to 33, who were presented with an in-vivo moral dilemas, whether to terminate a pregnancy. She concluded that women's salient mode of response to moral dilemmas tends to differ from that of men. For women, choices were made in the context of relationships and based on standards of responsibility and caring versus those of rights and justice. Gilligan suggests men are also able to consider the implications for relationship of moral decisions, but tend to primarily consider issues of rights and justice. Thus, sensitivity to relationship dimensions appears to be gender-related and not gender-specific (Gilligan, 1982).

Hancock (1981) also questions the emphasis on separateness in definitions of adult maturity. Her participants consistently described themselves in terms of relationships with others: becoming adult was described from the perspective of attachments, i.e., leaving home, getting married, having children. Hancock concluded that women redefine adulthood by anchoring their choices in the context of relationships and care and not just autonomy and self-determination.

The life patterns and plans of young adult and middle-aged women were investigated by McLean (1980). She found there was substantial discontinuity in the importance attached to various roles, particularly work and family roles. For example, the respondents continued to shift the importance of their employment over the life cycle. She also found that though respondents could articulate life goals or dreams, they did not, for the most part make those dreams a reality. Thus she concluded that most women have goals for their lives, but do not act on those goals, and that women live a complex life of constant changing roles and responsibilties.

The concept of well-being in women's lives was the focus of two studies (Baruch et al., 1983; Black & Hill, 1984). Baruch et al (1983), studying women 35 to 55, concluded that well-being for women requires elements of both mastery, tied to the doing side of life, and pleasure,linked to the feeling side of satisfaction and happiness with life. They found that in general, paid work contributed most to a high score on mastery, but work alone rarely provided a sense of pleasure. In contrast homemakers with children tended to report a great deal of pleasure, but mastery was a problem for them. The group scoring the highest on all of the indices of well-being were married women with children who have high-prestige jobs. The researchers also reported that well-being did not correlate with age. Black and Hill (1984) examined the impact of a number of variables (eg. martial and work satisfaction, employment status) on the psychological well-being of women who either anticipated or who had actually had their last child leave home. In general, respondents were relatively happy. Very little variance in their sense of well-being was accounted for by the variables studied. The researchers suggest that it might be the ability to cope with the various changes versus the changes themselves that has the most effect on women's well-being.

In the final macro study Rubin (1979) investigated the psychosocial development of a single cohort of women, ages 35 to 54, who had initially selected marriage and motherhood as their primary life tasks. Rubin found that even women who had paid jobs outside the home primarily described themselves in terms of being. The majority of respondents were struggling with what Rubin termed their "elusive selves." Rubin also notes the achievement efforts of midlife women can represent a high risk because they are threatening to significant others.

The issue of the role of relationships in the lives of women was addressed by two microstudies (Candy et al., 1981; Greenberg, 1980). Greenberg (1980) found that for middle-aged and older women (ages 44-77) relationships with family and friends correlated the most highly with life satisfaction, despite previous work histories and community involvement. This was true whether the women were paid and/or volunteer workers, or were classified as not working outside of the home, Candy et al. (1981) reached similar conclusions related to the friendship patterns of women. They found for women from the age of 24 to 80 a sense of well-being was strongly related to the size of the friendship network.

In summary, although the generalizability of these inductive investigations is limited because of their research designs, two central themes have emerged. The sustaining power of interpersonal relationships and their centrality in the self-concepts of women have been reported in studies of the role of relationships, per se, as well as of moral development, self-perception, and sources of well-being for women. A second theme is that a secure vocational identity is not reported by all cohorts of women, particularly not by middle-aged women who have been involved in child-rearing. However, Baruch's et al. (1983) investigation of women in varying marital, family, and occupational patterns, and their suggestion that occupational attainment can and does contribute to well-being for some cohorts is particularly clarifying.

Conclusions and Summary

"If the shoe fits," we are told, then we ought to wear it. Scholars tend to agree that male-based models will not and do not fit very well as explications of the lives of women. At best some aspects of male-based models were confirmed, e.g., the principle of alternating periods of stability and transition. However, no single model of the psychosocial development of women has emerged, even though the Baruch et al. (1983) constructs of mastery and pleasure are promising. In fact, Baruch et al. reported several different "lifeprints" for women, each with varying psychic rewards; they suggest identification of a single model of female development is inappropriate. Further, much work remains to be done to increase the generalizability of studies of the lives of women. Only one inductive investigation included non-Caucasian respondents; only three contasted responses of women in varying occupational roles. Only two contrasted the perspectives of women in distinct cohorts.

Where shall we go from here in subsequent investigations of the psychosocial development of women and men? We propose the following.

(1) Scholars should continue to use an inductive approach to gradually build alternate models of psychosocial development for both men and women (Gilligan, 1979, 1980).

(2) Subjects studied should be expanded to include women and men of all ethnic backgrounds and socio-economic status. The Coles and Coles studies (1978, 1980) are excellent examples of research that describe the lives of poor and working-class women of different ethnic origins.

(3) The finding that affiliation tends to be central to women throughout their lives should be subjected to further empirical research. In addition, the relevance of affiliation for men can be reviewed. A promising example of the latter is a critical review of the current literature on male development which incorporates the concepts of men's career transitions with those of gender role transitions, conflicts and strains (O'Neill & Fishman, 1985).

(4) Finally, the question of what constitutes the pinnacle of human development needs to be explored in greater depth. This same sentiment has been echoed in the work of Gilligan (1982) Lyons (1983). Questions that could be asked are: (a) Might there be a difference in how women and men define the pinnacle of human development? If so, is this difference gender-specific or only gender-related? (b) Might the pinnacle of human development be perceived to be different for different people, regardless of sex? and (c) How can we foster maturity, however it may be defined?

References: A list of the references used in the paper can be obtained from Rosemary S. Caffarella, Associate Professor, Virginia Commonwealth University, Box 2020, Richmond, VA 23284-0001

Loglinear Analysis: An Approach to the Statistical Analysis of Qualitative Data

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ABSTRACT: Loglinear analysis is the appropriate methodology for analyzing categorical data involving multiple predictors. Its results contrast with those from traditional analyses and lead to different interpretations.

Introduction

A relatively new generalized approach to the statistical analysis of qualitative (nominal/ordinal) data, loglinear analysis has been developed primarily by sociological methodologists and has come into popular use only in the past decade. So powerful has been the impact of this technique in the past ten years that it has been said, "a revolution in contingency table analysis has swept through the social sciences, casting aside most of the older forms for determining relationships measured at the discrete levels" (Knoke & Burke, 1981, p. 7). Thus, researchers are now able to do analyses with qualitative data that are analogous to regression, analysis of variance, and path analysis techniques.

Many important phenomena of interest to adult education researchers can only be measured in qualitative terms rather than along an interval or ratio scale. For example, most of the research about why adults participate in educational activities has conceptualized the dependent variable as categorical (participation versus no participation). With a categorical dependent variable the chi-square statistic can be used to measure the extent of association in a two-way contingency table (e.g., sex by participation). However, this approach limits the researcher to doing a series of two-way contingency tables, even when the research question involves multiple predictor variables. Thus, many researchers have used regression/analysis of variance techniques when there were multiple predictor variables and a categorical dependent variable. In addition to being methodologically inappropriate (i.e., these techniques assume interval level dependent variables), recent research using loglinear analysis has shown that these techniques seriously underestimate the explanatory power of the predictor variables.

While there is no shortage of research on participation, studies do not provide substantial statistical explanation for participation based on participants' demographic and sociological characteristics. This research suggests that part of the reason for the field's inability to advance participation theory in sociological terms rests with methodologies used in past studies. In order to illustrate our rationale for this argument, this study used the adult education activity, science and technology museum visitation (STMV), and, applying both loglinear analysis and analysis of variance to the same data, asked to what extent age, education, and political participation could explain participation in adult education. Implicit in the research question is the notion that age, education, and political participation provide an explanatory framework for participation. Age and education, demographic variables, and political participation, a sociological variable, have been demonstrated by past research to be associated with participation. Loglinear analytic constraints limit the number of sociodemographic variables that may be analyzed with the selected sample to three.

Secondary analysis of data from the 1979 survey, Attitudes Toward Science and Technology, sponsored by the National Science Foundation, was used to address the research question. The survey yielded responses from a national probability sample of 1635 U. S. adults.

Catergorizations of the independent variables were age - 17-34, 35-54, 55+; education - less than a baccalaureate degree, having earned a baccalaureate degree; and politicial participation (having worked for a political candidate or party, worn a campaing button, or displayed a campaing poster during the three to four years prior to the survey) - no, yes. The dependent variable (STMV) was dichotomized as no, yes.

Loglinear Analysis (LLA) and Results

LLA assumes that members of the sample can be cross-classified into categories of each and every variable such that the categories are independent, mutually exclusive, and exhaustive (i.e., each member of the sample can be defined by only one cell fo the contingency table). Respondents are represented by one distinct value for each of the independent and dependent variables defined by the cell. Hence, they represent a composite of associations among variables. Stated another way, in order to be categorized in any given cell, respondents' characteristics are mutually dependent. It is the mutual dependence or difference between the observed cell frequencies and those expected based on the associations specified in the loglinear models that the researcher seeks to explain. LLA also assumes that the marginals of the observed frequency table are representative of the population. Each cell represents a subpopulation of respondents.

To determine sources of variation in the table, loglinear models are constructed proposing the existence of associations among dimensions of the table. The least parsimonious model that can be built incorporates all possible associations between and among the cells of the table. In other words, it is possible to reproduce the observed frequency table by specifying each and every main effect and interaction possible. Thus if models are specified that contain only sociodemographic variables as predictors, these variables will, by definition, explain participation. Accordingly, the rival alternative variable, interest in science or technology, is included as a component of the explanatory framework for STMV.

Through the loglinear path-building component, significant associations between the independent variables as well as associations between each independent variable and the dependent variable are assessed. From standardized lambdas, the structural relationship between each bivariate categorization of variables entered into analysis is determined.

Loglinear models operationalize the proposed explanatory framework and propose the existence of associations among dimensions of the contingency table in order to determine sources of variation. A subset of loglinear analysis, logit analysis, is used to attribute variation in the dependent variable to associations with the independent variables. Through logit analysis, the power of the independent variable to explain the mutual dependence associated with the dependent variable is assessed. In order to assess each logit model's contribution to an explanation of the mutual dependence, a Coefficient of Multiple-Partial Determination (CMPD) is calculated. The CMPD is expressed as a porportion (.01 to 1.00) and is interpreted as the percentage of mutual dependence in the dependent variable explained by the independent variable. In additive logit model specification, variables are entered into analysis in a stepwise approach which accounts for all of the mutual dependence explained by each of the independent variables. It assigns any shared predictive power to the first variable entered. Deletion model CMPD's indicate the unique contribution of the independent variable to an explanation of the mutual dependence associated with the dependent variable, holding constant the effects of all other variables. The deletion approach does not account for shared predictive power.

For this study, the sample was cross-classified using the following SPSSX program.

```
CROSSTABS   VARIABLES=STMV (1,2) AGE (1,3) EDUCATION (1,2)
                      POLITICAL PARTICIPATION (1,2)
                      INTEREST IN SCIENCE OR
                      TECHNOLOGY (1,2)
            TABLES=STMV BY AGE BY EDUCATION BY POLITICAL
                   PARTICIPATION BY INTEREST IN SCIENCE
                   OR TECHNOLOGY
            OPTIONS 11,12
```

Using BMDP4F, the loglinear program read as follows:

```
/PROBLEM      TITLE IS 'SCI AND TECH MUSEUM VISITS.'
/INPUT        VARIABLES ARE 5.  TABLE IS 2,3,2,2,2.
              FORMAT IS '(8X,F8.0)'.  UNIT=9.
/VARIABLES    NAMES ARE STMV,AGE,EDUC,POLPART,SCIINT.
/CATEGORIES   CODES(1) ARE 1,2.
              NAMES(1) ARE NOMUSM,STMV.
              CODES(2) ARE 1,3.
              NAMES(2) ARE UNDER17,MIDDLE,OVER54.
              CODES(3) ARE 1,2.
              NAMES(3) ARE NOCOLL,COLL.
              CODES(4) ARE 1,2.
              NAMES(4) ARE NOPOL,POLPART.
              CODES(5) ARE 1,2.
              NAMES(5) ARE NOINT,INT.
/TABLES       INDICES ARE EDUC,AGE.
              SYMBOLS ARE E,A.
              DELTA=.5.
/FIT          MODEL IS AE.
/PRINT        OBS. LBAMDA.
/TABLES       INDICES ARE POLPART,EDUC,AGE.
              SYMBOLS ARE P,E,A.
              DELTA=.5.
/FIT          MODEL IS AE,P.
              MODEL IS AE,PE.
              MODEL IS AE,PE,PA.
              ADD=SIMP. DEL=SIMP. STEP=1. PROB=0.0.
/PRINT        OBS. EXP. PERC=ROW. LAMBDA.
/TABLES       INDICES ARE SCIINT,POLPART,EDUC,AGE.
              SYMBOLS ARE I,P,E,A.
              DELTA=.5.
/FIT          MODEL IS AEP,I.
              MODEL IS AEP,IP.
              MODEL IS AEP,IP,IE.
              MODEL IS AEP,IP,IE,IA.
              ADD=SIMP. DEL=SIMP. STEP=2. PROB=0.0.
/PRINT        OBS. EXP. PERC=ROW. LAMBDA.
/TABLES       INDICES ARE STMV,SCIINT,POLPART,EDUC,AGE.
              SYMBOLS ARE Y,I,P,E,A.
              DELTA=.5.
              MODELS ARE AEPI,Y.
              MODELS ARE AEPI,YI.
              MODELS ARE AEPI,YI,YP.
              MODELS ARE AEPI,YI,YP,YE.
              MODELS ARE AEPI,YI,YP,YE,YA.
              ADD=SIMP. DEL=SIMP. STEP=2. PROB=0.0.
/PRINT        OBS. EXP. PERC=ROW. LAMBDA.
/END
```

Table 1
Logit Models to Predict
Science and Technology Museum Visitation

LOGIT MODEL	CMPD*
The effect of interest in science or technology.	.164
The marginal effect of political participation.	.272
The marginal effect of education.	.291
The marginal effect of age.	.065
Interaction between political participation and age.	.092
TOTAL: ADDITIVE MODEL CMPDS	.884
Unique effect of interest in science or technology.	.079
Unique effect of political participation	.208
Unique effect of education.	.278
Unique effect of age.	.065

*Coefficient of Multiple-Partial Determination

According to Table 1, the independent variables explain 88% of the mutual dependence associated with STMV. Political participation, education, and age explain 55%. Interpreted, these values demonstrate that sociodemographic characteristics provide substantial statistical explanation for participation.

ANOVA Results

Using the same variables, an ANOVA was performed. The results in Table 2 show that the independent varibles explain slightly more than 7% of the variance associated with participation. Interpreted, this value demonstrates that the selected demographic and sociological characteristics provide very little explanation for participation.

Discussion

With possibilities for two markedly different interpretations of participation presented, an examination of the conceptual compatability between theory and methodology is essential. ANOVA operates on an assumption of interval level measurement on the dependent variable. A dichotomous dependent variable meets the criterion of interval level measurement since it possesses one interval. Nonetheless, there are only two points at which scores will be dispersed. In this instance, the value for nonparticipation was set at 1 and for

Table 2
ANOVA Summary for Relationships of
Sociodemographic Characteristics to
Science and Technology Museum Visitation

VARIABLE	SS	df	MS	*F*	R-Square
Interest in Science or Technology	3.006	1	3.006	27.732*	.0157
Political Participation	5.050	1	5.050	46.598*	.0263
Education	5.872	1	5.872	54.181*	.0307
Age	0.893	2	0.446	4.119**	.0005
EXPLAINED	14.822	5	2.964	27.350*	.0732
Residual	176.563	1629	0.108		
Total	1911.384	1634			

* $p < .0001$ ** $p < .016$

participation, 2. Mathematically, values between 1 and 2 exist. Conceptually, however, values such as 1.28 or 1.67 participation do not exist. There is no substantive meaning for fractions of participation. As a dependent varible to be explained through statistical analyses, participation dichotomized as engagement or nonengagement in an activity is best interpreted as a categorical variable. When analyzing a categorical dependent variable to be explained by multiple predictor variables, loglinear analysis is the methodology of choice.

Therefore, it is appropriate to conclude that sociodemographic characteristics provide substantial statistical explanation for PAE. Loglinear analysis provides methodology that identifies the structure of relationships between sociodemographic characteristics and participation and measures of the explanatory power of each sociodemographic characteristic analyzed for participation.

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ADULT EDUCATION AND SOCIAL EQUALITY: DEVELOPMENT OF A THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

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Abstract: This study develops and tests a framework to explain participation in adult education using "conflict" interpretations of the relationship between education and society.

Background of the Study

The debate over social inequality has been at the center of political conflict in this country, particularly since the late 1940's. A central issue in that debate has been the role that education plays in reducing or maintaining structures that support social inequality. As a major policy issue since the 1960's the problem of schooling and inequality has been the object of much theorizing and research by social scientists. Perhaps the most prominent empirical work on this problem was that of Coleman (1966) and of Jencks (1972), both of whom concluded that family background was much more important than schooling in explaining social inequality.

These issues have been debated in adult education since the beginning of the organized field in 1926. With few exceptions, the tenor of the discussion has been highly optimistic: most people see adult education as a positive force in creating a more equal society. Recently, several prominent scholars have seriously questioned whether adult education, "rather than contributing to social equality, works against it by providing a disproportionate share of educational resources to the more advantaged sectors of the adult population" (Darkenwald & Merriam, 1982, p.237). Other scholars have voiced this same concern (Cross, 1981) on the basis that all national surveys of participation in adult education reach the same conclusion: those taking the greatest advantage of adult education are well-educated, white, and economically advantaged.

The approach to the problem of educational inequality in the adult years is profoundly affected by the fact that participation is generally a voluntary activity. Thus, the question of why adults participate in education has been the focus of research in this area. The logic of this question is that if we could understand why adults participate, efforts to increase participation would be more effective. This question, which has been the focus of more research than any other in the field, has become increasingly more sophisticated. The research has moved from being atheoretical to the present in which several theoretical frameworks exist providing multivariate explanations of participation (Cookson, 1983; Cross, 1981; Darkenwald & Merriam, 1982; Hoghielm & Rubenson, 1980). Despite the increasing sophistication of the frameworks, no satisfactory empirical explanation of adult educational participation has emerged.

Two recent studies (Courtney, 1984; Dimmock, 1985) have questioned the fundamental conceptual and methodological bases of the previous research, thus pointing the way to a more satisfactory explanation of adult education participation. Courtney has argued that current theoretical frameworks are too focused on individual, psychological explanations of participation, failing to take into account the function of education in post-industrial societies. Thus, any theory of participation must have as its basis an explicit theory of education and society. Dimmock has demonstrated that previous research has consistently used an inappropriate statistical approach to analyzing the determinents of participation. Loglinear techniques are the method of choice when working with categorical dependent and independent variables, rather than the regression techniques that have been used to date. In her study using loglinear techniques, Dimmock explained 75% to 96% of the mutual dependence in the dependent variables, whereas regression techniques explained 6% - 12% of the variance in the same data.

Purpose of the Study and Conceptual Framework

The purpose of this study is to develop a comprehensive framework to explain participation in adult education. This framework will have explicitly built into it an understanding of the role that education plays in American society. While all previous frameworks have implicitly accepted a "functionalist" interpretation of this role the starting point for this framework are "conflict" interpretations of this role. Functionalism and its popular variant, human capital theory, place a strong emphasis on consensus and equilibrium in society. It is assumed that society has fixed and agreed upon ends and that education has an important role in helping individuals achieve those ends (Karabel & Halsey, 1977). Education is the primary means by which society, in a neutral manner, provides the knowledge and skill necessary to ensure individual mobility. In this view frameworks seeking to explain participation in adult education have their locus in individual motives.

While conflict interpretations have their roots in the analyses of society offered by Marx, it was not until the 1960's that these explanations of the relationship between education and society became prominent in the social sciences. One of the major sources of dissatisfaction with the functionalist approach arose from the findings of major research studies that were inconsistent with it (Coleman, 1966; Jencks & Reisman, 1968). For example, Jencks & Reisman (1968) showed that while the educational level of the American population had risen dramatically from 1940 to 1960, no real change occured in the distribution of income or social classes. Thus, while the functionalists see the educational system as offering opportunities for individual mobility, conflict theorists have generally stressed the role of education in maintaining a system of structured social inequality (Karabel & Halsey, 1977).

As applied to the question of participation in adult education, the functionalist approach frames the problem in motivational language: "if adult educators wish to understand why some adults fail to participate in learning opportunities, they need to begin with an understanding of attitudes toward self and education" (Cross, 1981, p. 130). Conflict theorists would argue that while increasing the educational participation of more adults might have positive individual effects, the amount of social inequality would remain unchanged as has been demonstrated at other levels of education (Jencks & Reisman, 1968). The fundamental problem with the functionalist approach is that it assumes that education is an independent source in the distribution of power, status, and other forms of societal equality. The conflict interpretation, in contrast, sees education as essentially a dependent system that is a function of larger patterns of power and control. Thus, it is inappropriate to view participation in the educational system as strictly a matter of individual choice; rather, it should be recognized that individual choice is itself conditioned by the same patterns of power and control. In trying to understand why adults participate in educational activities, one must examine how these larger patterns of power have affected individual "choice".

This study will use the "conflict" interpretation of the relationship between education and society as a starting point for the development of a comprehensive framework to explain participation in adult education. That is, participation will be viewed as a function of the existing power relationships within the economic and cultural systems of society. Karabel and Halsey (1977) and Giroux (1983) have reviewed the major frameworks of the conflict theorists that will be used in this study.

Methods and Results

The data source for the study is the National Longitudinal Survey of the High School Class of 1972 (NLS). The NLS, sponsored by the National Center for Educational Statistics, surveyed approximately 18,000 high school seniors in 1972 and again in 1973, 1974, 1976, and 1979. We are working with a pool of about 100 variables from the NLS in order to construct and test explanatory models of participation. The findings reported in this paper are illustrative, rather than final models; thus, no interpretations will be made.

The dependent variable, adult education participation, is constructed from three survey questions. If respondents indicated that they had participated at any time from November 1976 through October 1979 in either 1) any type of school, or 2) any other type of training (e.g., at the workplace), or 3) training in the military they were classified as participants. This resulted in 10,613 participants and 6,596 non-participants. Family socio-economic status (SES), created from five variables collected in 1972, is composed of three categories (high, medium, low). The respondents indicated in 1972 the highest level of education that their mothers expected them to achieve. This variable was categorized as college and less than college. The type of high school program in which the respondent was enrolled was categorized as academic and non-academic. The respondents' participation in ten general social activities in 1976 was used to create a variable and categorized into low, medium, and high. The respondents' interest in further education as reported in 1979 was measured in a dichotomous fashion.

Table 1

Logit Models to Predict Adult Education Participation

Logit Model		CMPD
H1	Effect of family SES	.226
H2	Marginal effect of mother's educational expectation	.278
H3	Marginal effect of type of high school program	.065
H4	Marginal effect of general social participation	.068
H5	Marginal effect of interest in further education	.341
	TOTAL: ADDITIVE MODELS	.978
H6	Unique effect of family SES	.050
H7	Unique effect of mother's educational expectation	.079
H8	Unique effect of type of high school program	.041
H9	Unique effect of general social participation	.054
H10	Unique effect of interest in further education	.341

Loglinear techniques were used to analyze the data. These techniques form a system of analysis for nominal and ordinal data that is analogous to the use of regression techniques with interval level data. Thus, loglinear analysis can be viewed as a multivariate extension of chi-square. In the same way that regression is used to explain variance in outcome measures, loglinear analysis is used to account for mutual dependence, which is a term used to signify the amount of association or relationship between categorical variables. If two categorical variables are unrelated, we refer to them as being independent. The difference between these two techniques is that regression is used to predict individual case scores while loglinear analysis is used to predict cell frequencies. In Table 1, the Coefficient of Multiple-Partial Determination (CMPD) is analogous to the multiple R2 in a regression analysis. For example, the results indicate that family SES accounts for 22.6% of the mutual dependence associated with adult education participation. The results for H1 through H5 are analogous to a stepwise regression in that, for example, H2 represents the amount of mutual dependence accounted for by mother's educational expectations, holding constant family SES. H6 through H10 represent the amount of explanatory power lost by removing the given variable from the total additive model.

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ADULT EDUCATION AND CULTURAL DETERMINISM

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ABSTRACT

Uncritically received cultural values and institutional role expectations result in an ideology of needs, access, and provision. Praxis entails a commitment to the "good", to self-reflection, and to interest in knowledge that emancipates.

Culture and the Practice of Adult Education

The link between culture and the profession of adult education as it is practiced in Canada and the U.S. is not well understood despite the fact that references to such links often occur in the literature of development education and comparative studies. Mainstream adult education's lack of attention to its relationship with culture reflects the institutionalization of practice and a conventional approach to professionalism. Consequently, much adult education theory and practice concerns only innovations in delivery methods and techniques, program resource allocation within the framework of institutional constraints, and assessment and recruitment of clientele. What remains unexamined are the origins and limitations of this set of interests. The purpose of this paper is to put into perspective the relationship between adult education and culture

Human Potential and Social Identity

Human activity arises from human potential. Human potential manifests physical, emotional, mental and spiritual dimensions, an infinite capacity to create further through the cumulative effects of learning and culture, direction and responsiveness to human will. The cradle to grave process of actualizing human potential in all its dimensions results in the formation of identity. Habermas (1973) asserts that identity formation occurs in relation to three existential conditions of social life -- labour (instrumental action), interaction (communication as the medium of social life), and authority or power (ideological distortion of communication). Human potential expresses itself in a social ecology or role system as we work, act, communicate with others, and experience the authority (power) of particular causal events and people over our lives in the context of cultural values and norms.

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So too, the position or status occupied by adult educators in a social ecology is defined by the role expectations held by members of relevent reference groups, such as clients and employers (Sarbin & Allen, 1968; Sarbin & Schiebe, 1983). Moreover, it is the cultural values in these groups that shape their role expectations and consequently the actions taken by adult educators to validate their status. In this way, cultural values play a significant part in constituting the roles of adult educators.

Values in North America

In Canada and the United States there are any number of cultures whose values adult educators may share or encounter, so that generalizations become problematic. Yet certain overarching North American cultural characteristics stand out: preoccupation with action rather than introspection -- a "fix the problem" orientation; material consumption; competitiveness; sexism; racism; ageism; a fascination with violence. French contends that:

> We live in a period which prides itself on "tolerance", on a relativistic perspective toward human arrangements which masks our real and fixed values -- power/control, white male superiority over a human race that is erratic, animalistic, brutal, and selfish and thus requires strict regulation (1985, p.23).

The extent to which general cultural values and expectations determine the roles adopted by professional adult educators (researchers, professors, graduate students, continuing education administrators, program planners) ought to be a focus of critical self-reflection by those who enact such roles. Otherwise, they can do little more than uncritically reproduce a received view of the aims, content and methods of their profession.

Ideology as a Reflection of Values

Values result in choices of action and priorities for individual and group attention. They constitute a worldview or ideology. Griffin (1983) asserts that contemporary adult education adheres to an ideology of identifying and meeting felt needs of adult learners and ensuring learners' access to institutional providers of adult education. In his view, this ideology reflects the degree of adult education's institutionalization and consequently, the concerns of its institutionalized professionals. Further, it represents an uncritical, received view of the aims, content and methods of adult education by failing to account for their relationship to knowledge, culture and power as determinants of reality. The needs-identifying/needs-meeting ideology reproduces what Brookfield (1985) labelled a "consumer oriented approach", and Lawson (1975) termed a "service" or market economy orientation embodying a neutral view of knowledge.

While the literature of adult education gives the impression that a plurality of philosophies exist, the range is typically limited to those that can be contained within an ideology of learner needs, access and provision. Invariably, such philosophies derive from a focus on learner characteristics and the learning process. Absent from these philosophies are references to the shaping power of culturally transmitted values and institutionally fostered expectations on educator and learner alike. In this way, philosophies function as idealized strategies guiding the professional to actualize received aims, content and methods of practice. They contribute little to an understanding of the cultural origin of value-laden ideologies and the guidance they provide to practice even when held implicitly.

Knowledge Interests and Ideology

Another fundamental problem associated with an ideology based on received values and expectations concerns what counts as useful knowledge. Knowledge, asserts Habermas (1973), is grounded in human interests. Different kinds of knowledge interests result from the existential conditions of labour, interaction, and authority (power) experienced within a social ecology. Reality is framed and apprehended through the knowledge interests pursued by individuals and groups. From the experience of labour result interests in instrumental/technical knowledge, how the material world works in terms of prediction and control. Interaction fosters knowledge interests concerning inter-subjective (hermeneutic) understanding. Ideologically distorted communication (authority) experienced as domination by causal events or other people leads to interests in knowing how to achieve emancipation -- freedom from domination.

Adult education is preoccupied with knowledge interests deriving from a professional-institutional ideology. As a result, useful knowledge is perceived too often as only that which enhances professional practice. The field of knowledge formalized in the literature of research and theory, and in the content of graduate programs, reflects a cultural orientation for action, problem-solving and for achieving control over material and social life.

In contrast to the attention given to creation and propagation of knowledge relating to the experience of labour and social interaction, little theory, research or commentary addresses domination that distorts educational activity at personal, institutional, societal and global levels. Yet this is hardly surprising since the social ecology within which institutionally based adult educators work is more likely than not to reproduce dominant cultural values. Further, for adult educators to upgrade their status within that social ecology requires validations by clients, peers and employers.

Praxis and Useful Knowledge

Habermas (1973) and others (e.g. Entwistle,1979, on Gramsci) maintain that within each social and educational act resides a "germinal of the good and true". Moreover, to release that which is good requires eliminating elements of domination in the roles, aims, content, methods of adult education. Knowledge of how to identify and eliminate relations based on dominance requires the development of emancipating praxis -- critical self-reflection based on a commitment to "the good", or to "first principles of existence".

Commitment to praxis necessarily involves critically evaluating received cultural values and institutional role expectations regarding the aims, content and methods of adult education. Individual, social and global transformation are linked to the development of consensus on what constitutes the universal good, free from overt or covert relations of dominance. Adult education theory and practice should be fully engaged with the development of emancipating knowledge. Otherwise, adult education's contribution to individual, societal and global transformation will be minimal.

Transition to Praxis

All aspects of the profession are implicated in a pursuit of emancipatory knowledge. Critical self-reflection by adult educators would foster:

1. The development of ethos based on a commitment to eliminate within the profession, its sponsoring institutions and society, relations based on domination, whether by causal events or people. Ethos implies an active public profile, advocating on behalf of programs and social policies that achieve (as far as equitable consensus can determine) a universal good.

2. The creation of graduate training programs that balance the problem-focusing, action-oriented imperatives of North American cultures with the consciousness-focusing disciplines intrinsic to praxis. Self-reflection is fundamental to a critical personal and group appreciation of the cultural roots of educational practice. Research should be conducted on the nature of praxis, including an emphasis on the means of developing in all practitioners the skills of self-reflection.

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MAJOR CONSTITUENTS OF TWO SUCCESSFUL PRISON EDUCATION PROGRAMS: A PHENOMENOLOGICAL STUDY

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This study identifies common constituents of a technical/vocational and a university level program that can "trigger off" and sustain perspective transformations in the lives of prison inmates.

> The antithesis between a technical and liberal education is fallacious. There can be no technical education which is not liberal, and no liberal education which is not technical.
> -Alfred North Whitehead.

Rationale and Purpose

Politicians and members of the public would like to be assured that penitentiary programs lead to a reduction in the rate of recidivism. This puts pressure on those committed to the maintenance and improvement of educational activities for inmates to demonstrate a causal connection between participation in prison education programs and a disposition to "stay out of trouble" after release. Unhappily, studies of prison education programs which contrive to show such a mechanistic link, via statistical significance, leave a number of questions begging (too many for detailed enumeration in this context), thus undermining the credibility of what might otherwise be accepted as very worthwhile learning experiences. Some of the questions can be expressed as follows:

How, for example, does one know that inmates enrolling in a specified prison education program are not already less disposed than the general prison population to commit further criminal acts? How can a researcher, then, realistically identify and control for, the important variables with this kind of population, and carry on the project over a long enough period of time that takes into account an acceptable number of students during their incarceration and after release?

While one can speculate (with some confidence) that, after a reasonable length of time, the two prison education programs of this study would evince statistically significant indicators of a reduction in the rate of recidivism subject to the serious shortcomings outlined, an altogether different course was taken. The major purpose was to identify, and carry out investigations on the constituents of two highly regarded prison education programs (a technical-vocational program, and a university level program) through systematic intuiting 1 A concomitasnt purpose was identified in the early stages of the study which addresses the question of whether the kind of ethically derived benefits (ie. other than the acquisition of certifiable knowledge and job related skills) usually claimed for university level courses, especially liberal studies, can be ascribed to a high level technical/ vocational course.

Context of the Study

The Radio and TV Service (electronics) program at Prince Albert, Saskatchewan, penitentiary lasts for 16 weeks, involves classes of 5 hours a day five days a week and a considerable amount of extra study. It leads to a certificate recognized nationally as being applicable to a journeyman's qualification. The academic standards are those of the technical institute delivering the program to the prison. Students must acquire at least a Grade XI standing in mathematics. A distinctive aspect of the program is that it originated in a petition from inmates to the supervisor of training who, following through on their request, had to overcome initial refusal from the regional headquarters of the federal correctional service before it was instigated in 1977.

The university level program has been in operation since the Fall of 1981. It comprises a number of social science and liberal arts courses delivered to Collins Bay Penitentiary at Kingston, Ontario by Queen's University. Most of the students are admitted to the program under Queen's mature student entrance provision. For those admitted, study skills courses are taught at the prison by instructors from the university's Student Counselling Services. Owing to the Correctional Service of Canada's "cascading" policy (transferring inmates to institutes with a progressively lower security rating during the course of their prison term), the chances of an inmate starting and finishing a degree while in the institute are slight. However, credits can be applied to other university programs at a subsequent time. Unlike the technical-vocational program at Prince Albert, the Collins Bay program was developed following a proposal from national head office. The head office's active interest was influenced by the high profile university program at Matsqui Penitentiary, B.C. which has provided the setting of two papers delivered at recent AERC meetings.2 During the early phase of this research project, the "Matsqui Model" emerged as an important backdrop to the overall context. It had provided the rationale for a comprehensive program of university courses (constituting virtually a liberal arts campus within the prison) selected especially because of their anticipated potential to enhance practical/ethical reasoning abilities and advance participants through to higher stages of moral development in line with Lawrence Kohlberg's notion of progressive moral developmental stages. Subsequent published claims made on behalf of this liberal arts program showing causal links between program effects and a reduction in recidivism are subject to the kind of shortcomings already noted.

Methodological Approach

The project required on-site investigations at both institutions. Previous experience of working with inmates and corrections officials was brought to bear, through various strategic anticipations, in setting up a triangulation process and planning interviews relevant to the level of investigation. Through a combination of short formal questionnaires, semi-structured and non-structured interviews--face-to-face encounters with individuals and groups, with stakeholders and interested people at both institutions--the major, inter-subjectively agreed upon, constituents for success of the two programs emerged. The people interviewed included present and former students, correctional service education and training staff, other corrections staff and management, and interested individuals from industry, and some members of the general public. Reference was made to official documents recording data on grades, retention, etc. Further, a history of the two programs was undertaken and related documents researched.

In effect, then, a very thorough triangulation procedure was followed in identifying and confirming the constituents of success that these two different types of prison education programs have in common. With these inter-subjectively determined constituents of success as signposts (as it were) arising from the contexts of the educational programs, selected inmates were asked to explore their past experience, present situation, and future prospects.

Analysis and Findings

Although the two programs are very different in terms of content and format, inmates interviewed at both institutes described them in the same kind of way. Similar emphasis was given to the same major constituents. The language used by inmates of both programs was, to a large extent, of a practical/ethical kind rather than of a technical or instrumental nature. This coincidence in the way participants at the two locations described (that is, their means of expressing) their respective programs is of prime importance since language they used mirrors their experience. The words we use, are not accidentally applied and then lost. They serve to constitute our experienced everyday world, our lived reality.

At both sites, separate interviews with education and training staff, classification (socialization, counselling) personnel, and administrators validated the reports of students, although staff tended to place more emphasis than inmates on the contribution of the programs to "the good order of the institution." and, more surprisingly, to the on the job relevance factor.

The paramount theme which emerges has to do with the difficult nature of the two programs. Students (and graduates of the technical-vocational program) stressed this aspect at the outset and dwelt upon it. ("The most difficult experience of my life," "This is not a mickey-mouse course," "You just have to learn to buckle down"). This theme was enlarged upon in a like manner by students of both programs who talked, with pride, of the perseverance (persistence) and challenge required which had not previously been part of their experience.

The difficulty is real. Everyone experienced it for themselves and, increasingly, with further reflection, on behalf of others. Nobody trivialized the experience. Some graphic accounts were rendered of "fear of failure" that accompanied the decision to embark on either of the two prison education programs. A great deal is at stake for inmates entering these programs, and all the beneficial constituents they share in common emanate from the overall theme which has to do with the fully comprehended level of difficulty, the perseverance demanded, and the challenge professed. These considerations take precedence over the job relevance factor which, though of consequence for students in both programs, was far less than anticipated for participants in the technical-vocational program, and greater than expected for students taking university courses.

"Difficulty" , "Challenge" , and "Perseverance" refer us to concepts that overlap so closely that they can be taken conjointly as a paramount theme. We experience difficulty, perseverance, and challenge together only in certain remarkable spheres of everyday living. As inmates in a maximum security prison taking a high level technical program or university courses we would be able to give very immediate and vivid examples of what is meant by (how we experience) difficulty, challenge, and perseverance; how they modify our being (and acting) in our present circumstances and what they hold out for us in the form of projected anticipations into the future.

We could begin with any one of these overlapping concepts and undertake an extensive phenomenological investigation that goes beyond the space allotted for this largely procedural account. A beginning can be made that gives direction to further investigations when we work the dictionary as a heuristic source to show that these overlapping concepts refer us to ethical/practical areas of human conduct that encompass thoughtful, mature reflection (practical reasoning), perspective transformations, enhancement of potential for successful living in the everyday world outside the jail, etc. This should point us to the connections with the other common constituents (sub-themes) identified as benefits of the two programs.

A difficult task requires "much labour, skill, or planning to be performed successfully." It is "not readily done;" it is "hard". Herein lies the enormous fear of failure experienced by inmates who themselves are given to explaining, along with prison officials and literature on criminology, that they have a greater need for instant gratification than the population at large.4 The connotation of "hardness" has particular relevance in a prison setting where it is associated with self respect and personal autonomy. After Prince Albert was designated as the federal institute to house only protective custody (ie "weaker") inmates,5 the success rate of the program dropped away significantly. (This is apparent from official documentation as well as from accounts given by staff and inmates --including P.C. inmates). Although there is no indication that the overall intellectual capacities of protective custody inmates are lower, they lack the 'stickability' attributed to the 'hard cons' who preceded them in the program; they are perceived as 'soft' by comparison.

The protective custody inmates who have succeeded in the high level technical/vocational program offer intense accounts of what it means, finally, to persevere with a demanding project that requires one to stay the course, and how it has led to an improvement in self-esteem and an ability to solve one's own personal problems. In addition to the "doggedness, steadfastness, and tenacity" that implies "resolute, unyielding holding on in following a course of action," and the obvious connection with the concept of difficulty ("maintain a purpose in spite of difficulty"), perseverance has an especially high moral content. It connotes "continuance in a state of grace to the end, leading to eternal salvation." This confers a special ethical quality to the challenge. (After all, robbing a bank is a challenge). It places a qualitative restraint on the notion of challenge which participants in both programs all referred to in more measured tones after describing with greater immediacy and emphasis the nature of the difficulty and context of perseverance experienced. As one begins to understand, inter-subjectively, the experience of an inmate participating in a high level couorse within a prison environment, the aggressive connotation of the challenge (that has to be accepted) as "a call or summons to engage in contest, as of skill, strength, etc." or something that by its nature or character serves as a call to battle, contest, etc." is tempered by mature reflection on the necessity to endure and accept the sacrifices entailed in staying the course. This is evident from the accounts of those who have succeeded.

Other important constituents of both programs that are clearly attached to the paramount theme of analysis (difficulty/challenge/perseverance) have been described by participants, other stakeholders, and observers of the programs. They include the following:

> Improvement in self-esteem, better work habits, greater inclination to solve own problems, more reflective on other aspects of life, fear of failure, low expectations from others, the therapeutic dimension, less involved with institutional changes, vocational relevance, recognition of programs "on the outside" and within the institution.

A liberal arts academic who has worked in corrections, and who is aware of the high regard in which Prince Albert's Radio and TV. Electronics Program is held, wrote a personal assessment that attributes the success of the program to the quality of the instructor. He is correct about the merits of the current instructor, but decidedly misguided in wanting to attribute the ethical and practical reasoning dimensions of the program entirely to instructor performance. An inferior instructor, of course, would serve to inhibit the emergence of the beneficial constituents identified, but the difficulties of the work itself, the overall event, that have to be confronted and demand persistence within an alienating or, at best, indifferent environment have to be borne by the individual learner regardless of the quality of the instructor.

The experience of participants in both programs tends to support the findings of the study Changes in the Role Identification Among Inmates (Clarke, Grant. AERC, 1985), although the developmental stage model incorporated into the investigation of necessity accords rather with the reality of the research design and the stage developmental rationale of program planners than with the lived experience of the inmates.

These constituents provide the basis for program effectiveness studies (qualitative and quantitative) as well as for more absorbing phenomenological investigations of adult learning in prison settings. A number of findings are derived from the overall study, and we can venture the following based on this necessarily adumbrated conference proceedings report:

1. There is a connection, and the nature of that connection can be ascertained, between participation in either of these two prison education programs and a pre-disposition towards an altered life-style while still incarcerated and after release.

2. Further, beneficial constituents which accrue are identified as a basis for program effectiveness studies and educational program development.

3. The beneficial constituents emerge from high calibre technical/vocational programs as well as from university liberal arts and social science classes.

4. Serious consideration should be given to the practical value and validity of studies seeking to establish causal connections between prison education programs and a reduction in the rate of recidivism.

5. Similarly, the efficacy of psychologistic models which present a rational for generalizable program implementation across the system (whether it is a stages of moral development model for liberal arts courses or a competency-based format for technical/vocational programs) is brought into question.

6. Studies are required that focus on the situation of protective custody inmates with a view to providing appropriate support to sustain them through demanding course work.

Notes

1. Intuiting as used here has nothing to do with a kind of haphazard spontaneity where one is so immersed in ongoing experience that critical awareness is excluded. Rather, it refers to the process of moving towards greater understanding, a surer comprehension of what is under investigation, through interactive inter-subjectivity -- ie. a reciprocal understanding of one

another's perceptions, cognitions, intentions, motives, etc. This is what "qualitative (naturalistic) researchers are beginning to get at when using triangulation methods.

2. Clarke, Grant S. "Changes in Role Identification Among Inmate Learners". AERC Proceedings Arizona State University, 1985. Pp.83-88.

Duguid, Stephen. "Prison Education: A Case for the Liberal Arts". AERC Proceedings, Universite de Montreal, 1983. Pp.87-92.

3. Hans-Georg Gadamer in describing the phenomenon of human understanding refers to "the universality of human linguisticality as a limitless medium that carries everything within it." Language is "the medium in and through which we exist and perceive our world."

This conception of "the universality of human linguisticality" is shared by linguists and philosophers of both the linguistic analysis tradition and those that work with a phenomenological orientation.

[Gadamer, Hans-Georg. Philosophical Hermeneutics (Tr.David Linge). Berkeley: University of California Press. 1976. pp.25 and 29]

4. The tendency of inmates to rationalize their situation to the interviewer at the beginning of the first encounter was anticipated in view of the fact that they rarely have an opportunity to talk seriously with someone from "the outside" who is not connected in some way with the correctional function or with their past life. A penchant for rationalization may be no more a characteristic of prison inmates than, say, academics who are able to be more artful about it. A more surprising revelation was the way in which inmates interviewed accepted for themselves in a taken-for-granted, non-reflective, manner psychological labelling within the prison, these concepts are reified to an extraordinary degree for staff as well as inmates. The normative structures, the ideology, of modern psychology have a very pervasive presence in the penitentiaries.

5. Protective custody arrangements are made for inmates who, for one reason or another, would otherwise be abused by other inmates. The contempt accorded them by other inmates is often manifested in the attitudes of prison staff towards the "P.C. population".

REASSESSING THE CANFIELD LEARNING STYLE INVENTORY

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Abstract

Reassessment of the Canfield Learning Style Inventory confirms content validity and reliability. However, construct validity and demographic variable explorations indicate important elements to consider when using the instrument.

Introduction

During the past few years, the concept of learning styles has become a major interest area of adult education practitioners and researchers. Although many (eg., Cross, 1976; Smith, 1982) suggest assessing a learner's preferred style before approaching learning tasks, there is disagreement over what exactly should be measured (Canfield, 1983; Kolb, 1974; Dunn & Dunn, 1979). One instrument that attempts to measure learning styles and which is increasingly being used in adult education research is the Canfield Learning Style Inventory (eg., Conti & Fellenz, 1985; Schmidt, 1984; Welborn, 1985). Although this instrument was originally normed on an adult-aged community college population, its continued use in adult education research depends upon the validity and reliability of the instrument with adults that can be expected to be found in adult education classes. Therefore, this study collected data from 779 adults enrolled in either full- or part-time credit courses. This data was used to compare this sample to the original norms for the instrument and to compare the learning styles of the traditional college students to those of the nontraditional continuing education students.

The Canfield Learning Style Inventory (CLSI) conceptualizes learning style as composed of the elements of preferred conditions, content, and mode of learning and of the expected level of success. The preferred conditions of learning consist of eight factors which make up the scales of Affiliation, Structure, Eminence, and Achievement; preferred content contains the scales of Numeric, Qualitative, Inanimate, and People; preferred mode has the scales of Listening, Reading, Direct Experience, and Iconic. Expectancy has four levels which range from expecting to do poorly to confidence in performing in a superior manner in the learning activity.

CLSI data was collected on 402 males and 377 females. They were enrolled in university credit courses either as traditional full-time students (523) or as nontraditional part-time students (256). They ranged in age from 17 to 65.

Content Validity

Content validity refers to whether or not an instrument covers the material it purports to measure (Tyler & Walsh, 1979, p. 31). Although this can be somewhat subjective (p. 31), a statistical method for checking content validity is a point biserial correlation between the score on each item and the score on the total test (Roscoe, 1975, pp. 113-115, 137). Separate Pearson correlations were calculated for each of the eight scales in the preference area of conditions and for the four scales in the preference areas of content, mode, and expectancy. This procedure supported the content validity of all items in the CLSI. For the 779 participants, the correlations ranged from .35 to .82. The range for each scale was as

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follows: Peer--.35 to .66; Organization--.46 to .62; Goal setting--.36 to .60; Competition--.40 to .60; Instructor--.54 to .69; Detail--.52 to .66; Independence--.47 to .65; Authority--.51 to .60; Numeric--.60 to .80; Qualitative--.61 to .82; Inanimate--.59 to .82; People--.63 to .71; Listening--.47 to .72; Reading--.60 to .77; Iconic--.42 to .81; Direct Experience--.51 to .79; Superior Expectancy--.43 to .82; Good Expectancy--.48 to .65; Satisfactory Expectancy--.54 to .76; and Unsatisfactory Expectancy--.46 to .71. Most of the correction were very high with the following in each range; .80 to .89--5; .70 to .79--29; .60 to .69--39; .50 to .59--29; .40 to .49--16; and .30 to .39--2.

Construct Validity

Construct validity refers to the relationship between performance on an instrument and theoretical prediction of some theoretical trait (Tyler & Walsh, 1979, p. 30). In instrument development, construct validity is often established by the instrument designer defining the theoretical underpinning of the instrument and verifying it with the testimony of a jury of experts in the field. While this is a satisfactory method of initially establishing validity when data on the new instrument is not available, factor analysis is a more powerful method for statistically re-examining this validity once the instrument is in use. Since factor analysis is a data-reduction technique which produces clusters of items with underlying relationships, it can statistically identify patterns of items. On a measurement devise, these items should cluster around the theoretical constructs in the instrument.

Since the CLSI purports to contain constructs which compose four preference areas of learning style, four separate factor analyses were conducted. Each used principal factoring with iteration and orthogonal varimax rotation. Canfield (1983) argues that preferred conditions of learning consists of eight areas which can be grouped in the following pairs: Peer-Instructor; Organization-Detail; Goal Setting-Independence; and Competition-Authority. These pairs can be retitled Affiliation, Structure, Achievement, and Eminence (pp. 14-18). The factor analysis did not support either the construct of eight separate areas or of four related areas. Instead, the factor analysis produced five factors. While these factors tended to support several of the constructs suggested by Canfield, they give more precise definition to the constructs. Factor 1 confirmed Canfield's construct of Structure; all items from the Organization and Detail scales loaded on this factor. The main construct in Factor 2 was Independence; however, several Authority and Goal Setting items loaded on this factor. These items suggest not only that Independence involves doing things on one's own but also that it implies a need for a degree of self-control. Factor 3 contains not only all of the Instructor items but also the other Authority items and a Competition item. These suggest that while it is important to have a warm, caring relationship with the teacher, students expect the teacher to challenge them. The purpose of the teacher is to help them learn and not just to be a friend. Factor 4 contained five of the six Peer items and four Goal Setting items. Together they suggest that while learners may prefer to work closely with other students, they have a need for maintaining their own identity. Factor 5 confirms the construct of Competition. Thus, factor analysis confirmed several of Canfield's constructs in the area of preferred conditions of learning and clarified others. However, it did not justify Canfield's suggested pairing of areas except in the area of Structure.

The factor analysis in the area of preferred content of learning produced four distinct factors. Factor 1 confirmed the construct of Inanimate, and Factor 2 supported Qualitative. However, the six items from Numeric and from People split equally between Factor 3 and Factor 4. The items loaded on each factor according to the overall questions in the test for which they were a subpart. An analysis of these questions suggest that Factor 3 represent learning about content which applies to a formal situation such as an organized class or job. Factor 4 concerns learning in a more informal, social setting. Both factors support working with people and with logic; however, the settings differ.

Although Canfield suggested four preferred modes of learning, the factor analysis indicated only three modes. Factor 2 contained all the items of the Iconic mode, and Factor 3 contained all of the Listening items. However, all of the items from both Reading and Direct Experience loaded onto Factor 1. This combination indicates that those who prefer to learn by reading perceive a need to do something with the material. Reading is not passive; it is directly linked to action. Likewise, from the direct experience perspective, practical activities can be more beneficial when supplemented with reading.

The factor analysis for the area of expectancy produced two factors. Instead of four levels on a continuum, the factors indicated the expectancy of either extreme performance or of mediocre performance. Factor 1 contained all the items of Superior Expectancy and all except one of the Unsatisfactory Expectancy items. All of the Satisfactory Expectancy items also loaded onto the first factor. The items for Good Expectancy loaded onto Factor 2. Although this final factor arrangement was not as clear as with the other preferred learning areas, it indicated that learners see themselves as being in one of two categories. Some predict their level of performance as either strongly superior or rather marginal; others believe they will perform in an average fashion.

Reliability

Reliability is the consistency with which an instrument measures a construct. In statistical assessment of instruments, Cronback's alpha "is perhaps the most widely used reliability coefficient" (*SPSS Update*, 1982, p. 256). The range of reliability coefficients varied with each preference area. All coefficients were either above or near the commonly used criterion level of .7 in two of the areas. In the preferred content area, the range was from .73 to .83; in the preferred mode area, it was from .69 to .81.

Most of the scales in the area of preferred conditions of learning and in the expectancy area were below .7. In the expectancy area, the scales for expecting excellence (.80) and satisfactory (.76) performance were above the criterion while good (.56) and unsatisfactory (.63) were below. All scales in the area of preferred conditions were below .7. Thus, reliability coefficients were low on the scales in both of the areas in which the factor analysis for construct validity did not support the current composition of the scale.

Norms

The initial norming procedure for the CLSI determined that males and females responded differently. Differences due to gender were examined by means of analysis of variance for each scale. This indicated a gender-related response difference on 12 of the 20 scales. Females showed a greater preference on six of the scales: Organization (F = 16.28, df = 1/759, p = .001), Detail (F = 23.74, df = 1/759, p = .001), Qualitative (F = 100.39, df = 1/759, p = .001), People (F = 38.54, df = 1/759, p = .001), Listening (F = 52.46, df = 1/759, p = .04), and Superior Expectancy (F = 8.45, df = 1/759, p = .004). Males indicated a greater preference on six other scales: Instructor (F = 17.04, df = 1/759, p = .001), Numeric (F = 11.61, df = 1/759, p = .001), Inanimate (F = 142.00, df = 1/759, p = .001), Direct Experience (F = 7.83, df = 1/759, p = .005), Satisfactory Expectancy (F = 4.83, df = 1/759, p = .028), and Unsatisfactory Expectancy (F = 3.99, df = 1/759, p = .046). The large number of differing scales justifies Canfield's construction of separate norms and profile sheets for each gender.

Although the scoring sheets do not reflect it, the manual for the CLSI indicates that several differences were found in responses due to age with the sample divided into two groups at age 25 (Canfield, 1983, pp. 39–40). An analysis of variance was conducted on each scale to test for the influence of age. However, five categories of age were used. These age groups were 17–20, 21–22, 23–29, 30–39, and 40–65. Responses differed by age in 15 of the 20 scales. In each of the analyses except for Unsatisfactory Expectancy, the scores from the two youngest groups were similar, and the three oldest groups were in agreement. The two youngest groups preferred Peer (F = 5.84, df = 4/774, p = .001), Instructor (F = 47.44, df = 4/774, p = .001), Inanimate (F = 16.86, df = 4/774, p =

.001), Iconic ($F = 3.19$, $df = 4/774$, $p = .013$), Direct Experience ($F = 8.86$, $df = 4/774$, $p = .001$), and Satisfactory Expectancy ($F = 23.63$, $df = 4/774$, $p = .001$). The three oldest groups preferred Organization ($F = 5.93$, $df = 4/774$, $p = .001$), Detail ($F = 10.46$, $df = 4/774$, $p = .001$), Independence ($F = 7.13$, $df = 4/774$, $p = .001$), Authority ($F = 3.82$, $df = 4/774$, $p = .004$), Qualitative ($F = 16.49$, $df = 4/774$, $p = .001$), People ($F = 3.71$, $df = 4/774$, $p = .005$), Reading ($F = 15.84$, $df = 4/774$, $p = .004$), and Superior Expectancy ($F = 30.40$, $df = 4/774$, $p = .001$). The 23–29 age group joined the two youngest groups in expecting to perform at an unsatisfactory level ($F = 7.58$, $df = 4/774$, $p = .001$).

The sample was divided according to their status for attending classes. One group consisted of traditional full-time students and the other of nontraditional part-time students. Analysis of variance measures for each scale indicated differences due to this status on 15 of the 20 scales. These differences were similar to the ones due to age. On 6 of the 15, those classified as traditional scored like the youngest groups; on 7 of the 15, the nontraditional scored like the oldest groups. On the other two scales, the traditional group indicated a preference for Competition and Numeric, but no differences were found in the analyses for age.

Canfield published percentile profile sheets for males and females based on the mean and standard deviation of each scale. A comparison of these norms to the sample group by analysis of variance revealed several significant differences. For the males, differences existed on all of the conditions scales except for Competition and Authority, on the Qualitative scale in the content area, on all except the Direct Experience scale in the mode area, and on all scales in the expectancy area. Similar differences existed between the females in the sample and the norming group. Differences were found on all scales in the conditions area except for Instructor and Authority, on the Numeric and Qualitative scales in the content area, on Listening and Iconic in the mode area, and on all expectancy scales except for Good Expectancy. These differences on 14 of the 20 scales for the males and 13 of the 20 scales for the females indicates a need for further checks on the stability of the scoring norms for most scales on the CLSI.

Conclusion

The CLSI is a useful instrument which measures several important constructs that have been suggested as elements in learning style. The instrument has a balanced format with four major areas and four subgroups in each area. One area, preferred conditions of learning, starts with eight scales which are collapsed into four to maintain the congruency of the pattern. While the content validity measures tend to support this configuration, the construct validity checks do not. Most of the confusion is in the area of preferred conditions of learning. Factor analysis does not support the combination of scales that Canfield suggested. However, most of the new combinations are similar to those discussed by Canfield, and they give more clarity to the constructs which he originally proposed.

When using the CLSI, demographic variables must be collected. Scores have to be calculated according to gender; the gender-related differences that were found support Canfield's use of separate profile sheets for males and females. However, age-related differences were also found. Canfield does not provide norms for the various age groups.

Future studies should re-examine the stability of the norms for the CLSI. Although the difference in the means for the males and females in this study and the norming group only ranged from .06 to 2.23, numerous significant differences were found. This indicates that further sampling with more diverse audiences may be necessary in order to provide more consistent norms.

Despite the criticisms, the CLSI remains a very useable instrument for rationalistic studies. It is reliable. Although the analysis indicated a variety of constructs somewhat different from those labelled in the existing scales, exploratory analysis did not support restructuring the scales according to these factors. Thus, the existing form of the CLSI can be used until naturalistic methods produce a better instrument.

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Measuring the Social Environment of Adult Education Classrooms

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Abstract

Objectives were to develop an instrument to measure the social environment of adult education classrooms and to analyze student and teacher perceptions of dimensions of the classroom social environment defined by the new instrument.

Problem

Social environment theory stresses the importance of the social climate or "personality" of an environment in shaping human behavior. Moos (1979, p. 19) states that "behavior is commonly though of as a joint function of the individual and his environment." If people and environments reciprocally influence each other, then an understanding of environments (in this case, adult education classrooms) must precede any assessment of the impact of the environment on individuals.

For some 15 years educational researchers have studied classroom social environments. Their inquiries have proved to be exceptionally productive, typically accounting for large proportions of the variance in educational outcomes (Fisher & Fraser, 1983). However, virtually all of the prior research has focused on elementary and secondary school classrooms. With one exception (Darkenwald & Gavin, forthcoming), there appears to be a total absence of research on adult education environments. Moreover, existing environmental assessment scales lack validity for adult populations. This was noted as a critical problem by Darkenwald & Gavin (forthcoming), who employed Moos & Trickett's (1974) Classroom Environment Scale (the most widely used of such instruments) to predict dropout in adult education classes.

Objectives

The present research was designed to address the needs and problems discussed above. The principal objective was to construct a valid and reliable instrument to measure the social environment of adult education classrooms. A secondary objective was to "test-out" the utility of the instrument by analyzing student and teacher perceptions of specific dimensions of the classroom environment as defined by the new instrument.

Methodolgy

Instrumentation

The initial item pool was generated from the following sources: 1)semi-structured interviews with 28 teachers of adults and 35 adult students; 2)review of environment measures developed for other populations and related purposes; 3)brainstorming -- each of the 11 members of the research team wrote

5 items which were then evaluated by the total group. These procedures yielded several hundred items. After eliminating many redundancies and inappropriate items (e.g., those unique to a particular setting), 159 remained. The 159 items were then rated by a panel of experts consisting of nine doctoral students in adult education and two faculty members. The surviving 89 items were then inductively classified into the following seven dimensions: Affiliation, defined as student interaction and cohesion; Teacher Support, defined as sensitivity and encouragement; Task Orientation, defined as focus and accomplishment; Personal Goal Attainment, defined as relevance and flexibility; Organization and Clarity, defined simply as organization and clarity; Student Influence, defined as collaborative planning and teacher non-authoritarianism; and Involvement, defined as student attentiveness, participation, and satisfaction.

The preliminary 89-item version of what was dubbed the Adult Classroom Environment Scale (ACES) was pilot-tested with 220 adult students from a variety of settings. On the basis of standard item-analysis procedures (and respondent feedback), the scale was reduced to 49 items, seven for each of the seven dimensions. The order of items was determined by random assignment. For each subscale the minimum score possible was 7 (strongly disagree = 1 x 7 items) and the maximum 28 (strongly agree = 4x7 items). Scale items were in Likert format.

Three forms of ACES were produced -- Student Ideal and Student and Teacher Real. "Real" refers to perceptions of the actual or enacted environment. The three forms are identical except for tense and directions to respondents.

Reliability

Cronbach's alpha was computed for each subscale of each of the three ACES forms. As can be seen from Table 1 below, subscale reliabilities ranged from barely satisfactory (.58) to very high (.89). Total scale reliabilities were uniformly high.

Table 1 Reliability Co-efficients for ACES Scales and Subscales

Form	N	INV	AFF	SUPT	TSK	PRGL	ORG	INFL	TOTAL
Student R	355	.80	.73	.85	.68	.76	.84	.74	.94
Student I	375	.80	.70	.74	.66	.66	.83	.71	.93
Teacher R	46	.67	.72	.74	.58	.69	.83	.89	.90

Validity

The absence of a criterion variable created difficulties in estimating ACES' validity. However, there is some evidence of support for its internal validity. First, intercorrelations among the seven subscales were in general low to moderate, indicating that they do not measure the same thing. The range of the intercorretations was -.20 to .55 and the mean 37.7. In addition, two items were included in the instrument solely as validity checks (items 50 and 51, "I enjoy this class" and "I am learning a lot from this class"). Since ACES was constructed to describe a "positive" or growth-enhancing adult learning environment, it was postulated that total ACES scores and subscale scores should correlate positively with a combined measure of satisfaction and success.

The following correlations between scale scores and the "satisfaction/success" index (items 50 and 51 combined) support this proposition and thus provide additional evidence of validity: Involvement, .71; Affiliation, .49; Teacher

Support, .70; Task Orientation, .51; Personal Goal Attainment, .60; Organization & Clarity, .68; Student Influence, .74; Total Scale, .77 (all correlation coefficients significant beyond .001 level).

Data Sources

In an effort to secure a large, heterogeneous sample of classes (the class was the unit of analysis), data were collected from three very different institutional settings. One was a community college located in a depressed urban environment. The respondents consisted of 308 students enrolled in a special credit-bearing program for adults. Another site was a large state university. The respondents (N=156) were students in a special evening M.B.A. program for working managers. The third site was a large community adult school located in a middle class municipality. The 266 respondents were enrolled in avocational or "personal enrichment" non-credit courses. The number of teachers from each site who completed the Teacher-R form were 16, 5, and 25 respectively (many taught more than one class). the total number of classes was 55. An additional seven were deleted from the analysis because they enrolled fewer than five students, thus casting doubt on their status as "classes," or, at least on the reliability of the students' pooled perceptions.

For each class, teachers were provided with an equal number of Student Form R and Form I questionnaires (the total equaling the class enrollment). They were instructed to distribute the color-coded instruments by alternating the forms. In other words, the first student received white Form R, the second yellow Form I, the third white Form R, and so on seriatum. The teacher completed Teacher Form R. After completing ACES, the students were told to insert and seal the forms in envelopes addressed to Rutgers University. The teacher then collected the sealed envelopes and forwarded them to Rutgers project staff at each site. As can be seen from the response data, this quasi-random sampling procedure was largely successful: 355 students completed Form R and 375 Form I.

Description of Sample

Females comprised 60.7% of the total sample. Educational attainment was as follows: 3.3%, no credential; 46.8%, high school diploma; 8.9%, associate's degree; 31.4%, bachelor's degree; 9.1%, graduate degree. With respect to age, 32.3% were 25 or younger, 32.8% 26 to 33, and 34.9% 34 to 72 (only 3.3% of this group were 57 or older). Comparison with national statistics (Kay, 1981) indicates that the study sample was similar in demographic composition to adult education participants generally.

Findings

Perceptions of the Classroom Social Environment

As shown in Figure 1, the findings generally adhered to the hierarchial pattern of Student Ideal highest, Teacher Real next, and Student Real lowest. The exceptions were two dimensions of interpersonal relations (Affiliation and Teacher Support). Teachers perceived these dimensions as more characteristic of their classrooms than did students, in fact even more so than students conceived them as the ideal. It seems that teachers tend to exaggerate the extent of student involvement and their own supportive behavior in their classrooms, a conclusion that could hardly be considered surprising.

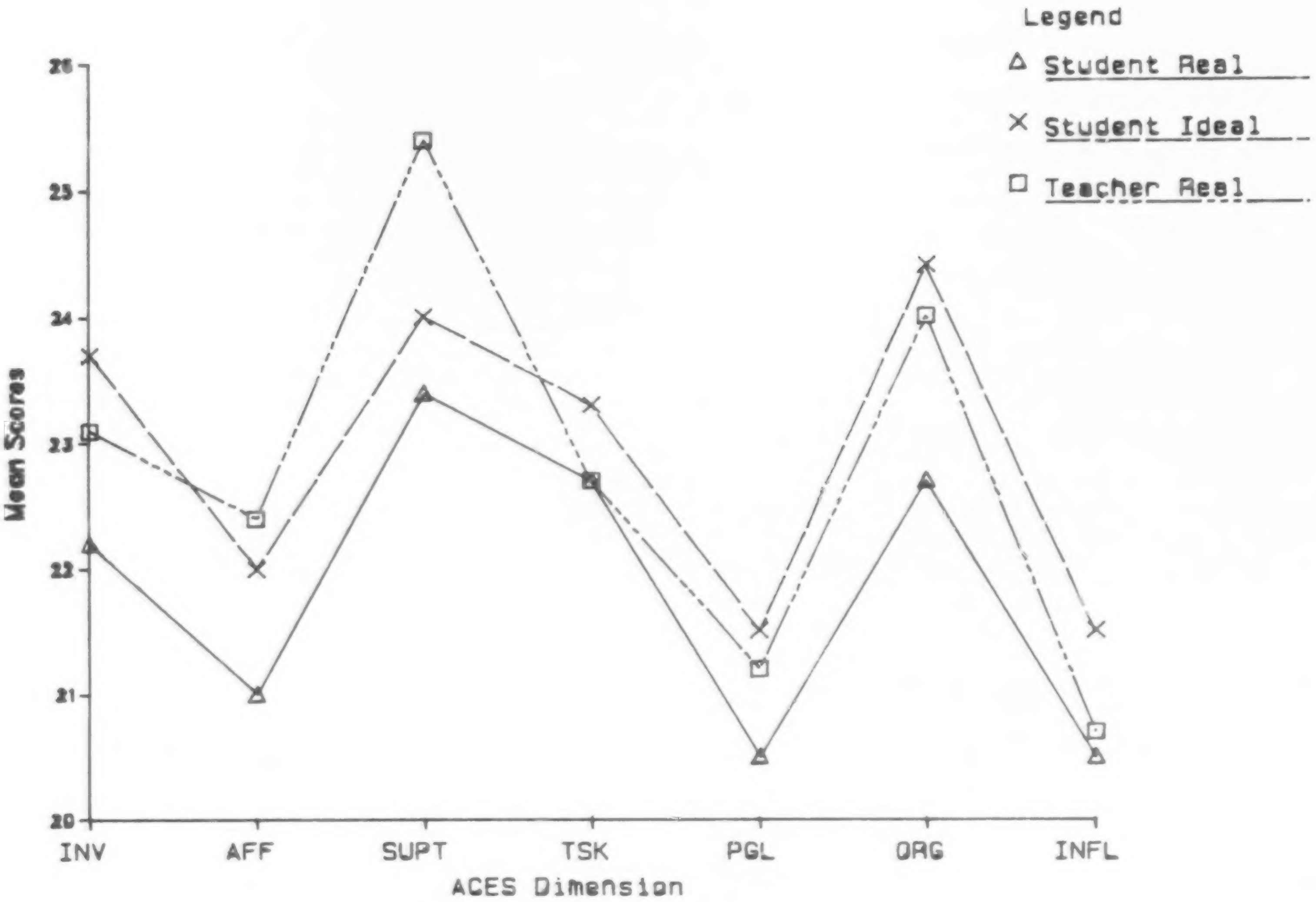

Figure I. ACES Form R and Form I Profiles for Students and Teachers in 55 Classrooms

Models of Adult Participation in Informal Science Education

Katherine H. Dimmock

ABSTRACT: Based upon analysis of adult participation in three informal learning activities, this study suggests that a redirection in participation research is in order.

Introduction

Nearly from its beginning as a legitimizd field of inquiry and practice, adult education has witnessed efforts to characterize the learner component of its educational processes. The general reason that an understanding of participation in adult education (PAE) has been a topic of some importance relates to the voluntary nature of participation. In this regard, Darkenwald and Merriam (1982) isolate two ways the practice of adult educators is influenced. The first way pertains to the practical value of participation research for program development and planning. The second way concerns the formulation of public policy. Whatever the topic for public policy decision-making, adult education activities impact the development of an informed citizenry.

Combining the importance of understanding PAE with roughly 50 years of literature describing participation, one might speculate that review of research studies would yield definitive learner characteristics that have provided substantial statistical explanation of PAE. Using Courtney's (1984) categorization of three Strains of PAE research conducted in the United States from 1926 through 1981, this study focused upon the Survey and Sociological Strain studies in order to identify demographic and sociological characteristics that explain PAE.

These studies are particularly interesting for two reasons. One reason relates to the substantive interpretation of the value of sociological measurements to understanding PAE. Courtney (1984) argued that motives to participate are less psychological than they are sociological. They are largely determined by the ways adults view the world. He associated world-view perspectives with social class and education, two ways through which society differentiates individuals. He placed the need for analyzing motivations and considering personality characteristics secondary to considering societal influences upon PAE. When adult educators find that those who should be most inclined to participate, in terms of sociodemographic characteristics, do not participate, or conversely, when those least inclined to participate do, understanding individual motivations becomes essential. In this sense, sociological analyses of participation are instrumental to understanding psychological motivations to participate.

The second reason that survey and sociological PAE studies are interesting relates to the consistent patterns of associations between selected demographic and sociological characteristics of adults and their participation in adult education activities. From the earliest participation data to present research, demographic factors such as age and level of formal schooling have demonstrated associations with PAE. Sociological factors that have been shown to be associated with PAE include other forms of social participation (e.g., memberships in organizations; amount of television viewing), place of residence, and occupational type.

If sociodemographic factors are associated with PAE, then multivariate analytic techniques should provide researchers with a measure of their explanatory power. Such was the assumption of Anderson and Darkenwald's 1979 study, Participation and Persistence in American Adult Education, undertaken to clarify the complex interrelationships of factors associated with PAE. These researchers completed secondary analysis of data collected by the United States Bureau of the Census for the National Center for Education Statistics (NCES) in 1975. They reported that "only 10% of the variance associated with participation and persistence could be accounted for statistically...In other words, 90% of whatever it is that leads adults to drop out from adult education has not been identified by this or by other similar studies conducted in the past " (Anderson & Darkenwald, 1979, p. 5).

Inquiry into why multivariate analysis of sociodemographic factors has not provided substantial statistical explanation of PAE was the focus of this study. While studies have repeatedly demonstrated associations between sociodemographic characteristics and PAE, one generally does not find explanatory frameworks that link these factors and provide substantial explanation.

Research Question

The research question addressed through this study was "To what extent can sociodemographic models explain participation in adult education?" In order to study this research question, previous survey and sociological PAE research studies were challenged in two ways. The first relates to a broad operationalization of the PAE construct. The triennial NCES studies define participation as engagement in any form of organized instruction including public and private adult education classes, job taining classes, correspondence classes, classes sponsored by church and community organizations, private instruction and tutoring, among other activities. Johnstone and Rivera's (1965) definition of participation included enrollment as a full-time student, taking courses given over television, and "engagement in learning some new subject or skill by means of independent study strictly one...[one's] own" (p. 30) in addition to the activities specified by the NCES. Broadly defined, however, PAE represents a variety of phenomena. When researchers categorize participation as engagement or nonengagement in any one of the types of activities previously mentioned, they collect information upon which a participation rate may be calculated. However, when they accept a variety of activities in which the adult may be engaged in order to be counted as a participant, they are, in effect, equating each form of activity with every other form of activity specified. This means that - as a phenomenon - enrollment in an adult basic education class is the same thing as studying music with a private tutor, and that these two activities are equivalent to participating in a management training course. While these activities may be subsumed under the rubric participation in adult education, they are mututally distinct phenomena with different antecedents. Measurement theory necessitates the specification of a single phenomenon as the object of explanation.

The second challenge to previous PAE research relates to the multivariate technique used to analyze relationships between PAE and sociodemographic characteristics. The analytic technique of regression, used in past studies, operates on assumptions of interval scale measurement for all variables. While regression has been demonstrated to be robust in relation to violation of assumptions, it is possible that regression may underestimate the strength of the relationships between sociodemographics and PAE.

To explain, a dichotomous variable meets the criterion of interval level measurement since it possesses one interval. Nonetheless, there are only two points at which scores will be dispersed. For example, the researcher can set the value for nonparticipation as zero and the value for participation as 1. Mathematically, values between zero and 1 exist. Conceptually, however, values such as .25 participation or .50 participation do not exist. There is no substantive meaning for fractions of participation. As a dependent variable to be explained through statistical analysis, participation dichotomized as engagement or nonengagement in an activity is best interpreted as a categorical variable.

Further, characteristics such as sex, religion, race, occupational type, and place of residence represent categorical measures. Years of schooling is argued to be an ordinal level rather than interval level variable. A person with 12 years of schooling, for example, does not simply have one-twelfth more education than a person with 11 years. Thus, with categorical dependent and independent variables, regression is not the analytic method of choice.

In order to empirically test the relationships among sociodemographic characteristics and PAE, the analytic method of choice is multivariate cross-classification analysis, specifically loglinear analysis. It was developed to analyze qualitative (nominal/ordinal) data. Following the procedures described by Goodman (1978) and Fienberg (1977), loglinear analysis allows the researcher to move beyond consideration of bivariate categorical relationships to consideration of multivariate cross-classification relationships. Through loglinear analysis researchers are able to do analyses with qualitative data that are analogous to regression, analysis of variance, and path analysis.

Assumptions and Methodology

To systematically address the research question, two assumptions were drawn. First, it was assumed that in order to provide substantial statistical explanation of PAE, areas for PAE must be analyzed singularly. Accordingly, operationalization of PAE was narrowed in terms of content for learning and process by which content is learned. Science and technology was selected as the unifying content area, and informal education, or that process through which an adult gains knowledge or skill without direct teacher-student interaction, was delineated as the process for learning. Science and technology museum visitation (STMV), science magazine reading (SMR), and science television program viewing (STPV) were then selected as activities for study.

Data from the 1979 National Science Foundation survey of adult attitudes toward science and technology which used a national probability sample of 1635 U.S. adults were used for secondary analysis for this study. While PAE was not the focus of the study, its questionnaire included items that measured demographic and sociological characteristics of respondents, as well as their STMV, SMR, and STPV.

To handle loglinear analytic constraints, a maximum of two demographic variables and one sociological variable were entered into loglinear path and logit analyses for each participation variable. Consequently, a series of loglinear models were built and analyzed. Also, interest in science or technology (dichotomized as no, yes) was entered into each model analyzed as a rival alternative explanatory variable for PAE.

Independent variables entered into analysis for each dependent variable were: sex (male, female); age (17-34, 35-54, 55+); education (less than a baccalaureate degree; having earned a baccalaureate degree); residence (nonmetropolitan, metropolitan); social participation (no, yes); political participation (no, yes); religious participation (no, yes); amount of general television viewing (low - 19 hours or less per week, high - 20 or more hours per week).

Using a path analytic approach, each bivariate association proposed by the loglinear model was assessed resulting in construction of four path models each for STMV and SMR, and two for STPV. Independent variables not significant at the .01 level were dropped from subsequent analyses. From logit analyses the most parsimonious models were built, and the strength of effect of each independent variable upon the dependent variable was calculated as the Coefficient of Multiple-Partial Determination (CMPD).

Comparing a logit analysis to a regression analysis, where the r-square is used to indicate variance in quantitative analysis, the CMPD is used to indicate mutual dependence to be explained in qualitative analysis. The concept of mutual dependence is preferred in cross-classification analysis since prediction of cell frequencies is sought. Both r-square and CMPD relate, conceptually, to the ability of the independent variable to account for difference in relation to the dependent variable. However, r-square and CMPD are not synonymous; they are based upon different metrics.

Results and Conclusions

Models built to explain STMV accounted for 78% to 83% of the mutual dependence available. Uniquely attributable to sociodemographics were explanatory powers of 42% to 50%. Models built to explain SMR accounted for 90% to 96% of the mutual dependence available. Uniquely attributable to sociodemographics were explanatory powers of 42% to 51%. Models built to explain STPV accounts for 91% of the mututal dependence. Uniquely attributable to sociodemographics were explanatory powers of 21% and 27%. From these findings the study concluded that by (1) narrowing the definition of PAE through operationalizing participation as a specific type of activity dealing with a specific topical area, and by (2) using an analytic technique that is substantively compatible with the theory to be analyzed, sociodemographics are found to substantially explain participation.

Review of a summarization of specific findings presented in Table 1 leads to the second conclusion.

Table 1
Strength of Association between Predictor Variables and Science and Technology Museum Visitation (STMV), Science Magazine Reading (SMR), and Science Television Program Viewing (STPV)

Predictor Variable	Dependent Variables STMV	 SMR	 STPV
Sex	------*	3-4 %	------
Age	7-10%	------	4-8 %
Education	24-36%	26-39%	7-11%
Residence	3%	4%	------
Religious Participation	------	7%	------
Social Participation	10%	22%	16%
Political Participation	17%	7%	3%
Amount of General TV Viewing	2%	------	------
Interest in Science or Technology	15-20%	19-26%	41-53%

Note: Percent denotes the mutual dependence associated with the dependent variable explained by the predictor variable.

* Predictor variable was not significantly related to the dependent variable at p<.01.

The second conclusion is that the ability of sex, age, education, residence, religious participation, social participation, and amount of general television viewing to explain participation differ across forms of participation.

Discussion and Implications

Intents of this research were (1) to call attention to the conceptual and measurement problems associated with a broad operationalization of participation, and (2) to demonstrate that, with the use of a conceptually compatible analytic technique, sociodemographics substantially explain participation. This study challenges adult educators to re-think what they have come to know regarding sociodemographic explanations of PAE. Anderson and Darkenwald's study has led adult educators to conclude that explanation for PAE is not to be found in sociodemographics, that explanations lie elsewhere. In previous research methodology was driving theory; in this study, theory was driving methodology.

The general implication drawn from this study is that a redirection of participation research is in order. This study is a first effort to provide sociodemographic explanations of specific forms of PAE. This study can make two statements with some degree of confidence that refute previous research findings. First, sociodemographics can explain participation to a statistically significant extent. The importance of conceptualizing PAE as a single act cannot be overstated. Adult educators do not portray their clientele as homogenous. Participation in different forms of adult education occurs as a result of different antecedents. If a general theory of participation is to be built, it must be derived from examination of participation in specific forms of adult education.

Second, sociodemographic explanations differ according to form of participation. Johnstone and Rivera's (1965) profile of the typical participant in adult education is cited frequently in the literature. Darkenwald and Merriam (1982) caution adult educators that talking "about the 'average participant' using aggregate national statistics can be very misleading" because "adult education takes so many forms and is so varied in its settings and purposes" (p. 120). This research identified examples of differences among participants based upon specific activities. The caveat is that there are differences -some slight, some great- in participants by activity. As adult educators approach the learning public, they cannot assume that portraits such as that painted by Johnstone and Rivera exist for all forms of adult education. A practical value for description of a "typical participant" can only be recognized when a sociodemographic profile specific to a particular form of adult education has been identified.

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The Psychosocial Content of Teacher Talk: Does it Make a Difference in the Process of Student Learning?

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Abstract

This study investigated the relationship of psychosocial content of teacher talk to student coping and defensive behavior in 10 adult instructional groups. No significant correlations were observed. However, descriptive analyses suggest several psychosocial issues that should be examined more closely.

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

Adult education programs frequently employ instructional processes in which the adult learner is asked to examine, reflect on, and possibly change personal beliefs, attitudes, habits and behaviors. Small group discussion is a teaching method most commonly employed in these programs. Health and patient education programs, parenting groups and personal growth groups are a few examples of such adult education programs. In these settings one of the factors that may influence what students learn and how is the socioemotional facet of the teacher's behavior (Dunkin, 1986). Numerous studies of socioemotional aspects of elementary and secondary education classrooms have been reported (Dunkin and Biddle, 1974; Flanders, 1967; Gage, 1978), and some research has been done on the relationship of teacher behavior to adult learning. However, the studies in adult education tend to conceptualize teaching in global terms, such as "style", and learning as student achievement gains (e.g. Conti, 1985). Very little is known about specific socioemotional qualities of teaching in adult education classrooms or the relationship of these qualities to the processes and outcomes of adult learning.

The purpose of this study was to examine the socioemotional qualities of teaching in an adult education program and their relationship to the classroom behavior of adult learners. The teachers and students in this study were participants in an education program for drivers convicted of operating while intoxicated (OWI). The program emphasizes the need for participants to reflect on their behaviors and attitudes towards drinking and driving, and to bring about changes in their behavior, if necessary. (Department of Transportation, 1982). The program's objectives, its curriculum, and the reasons students participate involve substantial socioemotional aspects. Therefore, this program seems particularly well-suited as a basis for studying this problem.

Specifically, this research sought to determine if "positive" socioemotional teaching behaviors were related to "desirable" student adaptation behaviors. What is meant by positive socioemotional behaviors and desirable adaptation behaviors was specified within the context of a particular theoretical framework.

CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

According to the conceptual framework described by Biddle (1986) and Dunkin and Biddle (1974) for research on teaching, teacher and student variables can be grouped according to whether they are presage, context, process or product variables. The teacher and student variables of interest in this study were both process variables. Therefore, the research reported here falls into the "process-process" category of the study of teaching.

Despite the voluminous body of research on the socioemotional facet of teaching, the findings are not grounded in a rigorous conceptual framework (Dunkin and Biddle, 1974). Many of the categories used in this research have been derived empirically, rather than from a sound, consistent theory of human behavior. This has lead to considerable confusion as to just what teaching behaviors are indicated by the different categories.

For these reasons a theoretical perspective other than that used in the socioemotional literature was used in this study. A framework was sought that would address the types of concerns reflected in this literature, but that offered a consistent, rigorous and tested theory of human behavior. Two theories from the field of ego psychology were selected: the theory of psychosocial development proposed by Erikson (1980) and the model of ego functioning proposed by Kroeber (1963) and Haan (1977, 1963).

Teaching and learning situations with a substantial socioemotional or psychosocial component, such as those mentioned earlier, tend to engage the students psychologically and personally. They require her or him to continuously adapt to the potential conflict which the instructional process may elicit in the ego. According to the Kroeber-Haan model, these adaptations may be manifest in two forms of ego functions, coping or defense. Coping behavior reflects a willingness to look at one's behavior, increased flexibility, predominance of secondary processes (thinking), and an orientation to the future. Defensive behavior is manifest in a sense of rigidness, unwillingness to look at one's behavior, a predominance of primary processes (emotional reactions), and a sense of being pushed form the past. Because this model was used for observational research a third category, "No Evidence" was added. This category reflects primarily conflict-free or psychologically uninvolved behaviors, such as simply providing historical or biographical information with no observable emotion or affect. These three categories were used in this study to classify student verbal behavior. (For the behavioral specifications of this system see White, 1976 and Wilson, 1974).

Erikson's (1980) theory of psychosocial development was used to classify the verbal behavior of teachers. According to this theory, teacher talk can be conceptualized as primarily psychosocial or nonpsychosocial. This study focused on the psychosocial content because psychosocial teacher talk is more likely to elicit conflict-evident behavior in students than is nonpsychosocial talk. The specifications for making this distinction are derived from Erikson's theory, and adaptations of it for the study of small instructional groups (Boyd, 1984; 1983; Boyd and Wilson, 1974). Teacher psychosocial verbal behavior (TPVB) will reflect one of eight psychosocial issues, and may be either "self" or "other" directed Thus, teacher utterances were identified as psychosocial or nonpsychosocial. Each psychosocial utterance was classified according to the particular ego-stage issues it reflected. Then, the utterance was classified as positive or negative, based on the specifications for that ego-stage concern. (For the detailed descriptions of this category system, see Davie 1971; Dirkx, 1981; White, 1976; and Wilson, 1980; 1978).

Specifically, this study examined the extent to which teacher psychosocial verbal behavior that is positive is related to student coping behavior in 10 adult OWI instructional groups. In addition the study sought to describe the specific psychosocial issues manifest in the teachers' talk, as well the extent to which students were psychologically involved in the instructional process.

METHODS

The data for this study were gathered as part of a large evaluation study of Wisconsin's Group Dynamics-Traffic Safety School (GD-TSS). The sampling method, research design and data collection procedures are discussed in Boyd et. al. (1979). Ten instructional groups were selected for this study. Each group met for seven three-hour sessions. Each group session was videotape and audiotape recorded. Because of limited resources, one session per group was randomly selected for analysis. These 10 sessions were randomly ordered and then assigned to two judges for coding teacher verbal behavior. Sessions were then randomly assigned to two different judges for coding student verbal behavior. The unit of analysis for teacher and student verbal behaviors was an utterance. All coders followed an explicit coding procedure outlined in the coding manuals for the two systems. All coding was performed independently. The analysis of the sessions began following a sufficient training period and the establishment of inter-coder reliability. Intercoder agreement was checked at three different intervals during the coding process, using the simple percent agreement method. Reliability coefficients were computed using the Guetzkow (1950) approach. All reliability coefficients were within acceptable limits for this methodology (For the values of the 12 coefficients obtained, see Dirkx, 1981). The correlation between the frequency of positive TPVB and the frequency of student coping behaviors was determined using the Spearmen rho, a rank order correlation. With a sample size of 10 and alpha set at less than or equal to 0.05, the absolute value of rho must be greater than or equal to 0.65 to reflect a significant correlation.

FINDINGS

The frequency of TPVB in each of the categories was expressed as a percent of the total number of psychosocial utterances code for each teacher. The percent of TPVB that was positive varied from a low of 38.3% for Group 6 teacher to a high of 78.3% for Group 9 teacher. The mean frequency of positive TPVB for the 10 teachers was 57.8%. The predominant psychosocial issue reflected in the content of TPVB for all 10 teachers was Autonomy versus Shame and Doubt (Erikson's stage II). For the II+ category (Autonomy) the frequencies ranged from a low of 20.6% for Group 6 teacher to a high of 55.4% for Group 9 teacher, with a mean of 37.3%. For the II- category (Shame and Doubt) the frequencies ranged from a low of 16.6% for Group 4 teacher to a high of 55.6% for Group 6 teacher with a mean of 31.1%. Overall, a mean of 68.4% of the total TPVB was coded in these two categories. The categories with the next highest mean frequencies were Industry (IV+) with 6.5%, Identity (V+) with 5.6%, Trust (I+) with 4.6%, and Mistrust (I-) with 3.9%. Less than 11% of the total TPVB was coded in the remaining 11 categories. No utterances were coded in VIII-, (Stagnation), VIII+, (Integrity), or VIII-, (Despair).

The predominant category reflected in the content of student verbal behavior for the 10 groups was the "No Evidence" category. Eight of the 10 groups had a higher frequency of student utterances in this category than in the other two. The frequencies for this category ranged from a low of 27.5% for Group 2 to a high of 77.1% for Group 9, with a mean of 55.2%. All 10 groups had a higher frequency of Defense utterances than coping utterances. Frequencies for the Defense category ranged from a low of 11.9% for Group 9 to a high of 68.6% for Group 2, with a mean of 34.2%. Frequencies for the Coping category ranged from a low of 2.7% for Group 7 to a high of 15.5% for Group 3, with a mean of 10.6%.

The absolute value of the rank order correlation obtained between the percent of TPVB that is positive and the percent of student verbal behavior that is coping was 0.14. This value is not statistically or practically significant. Therefore, the hypothesis under investigation in this study was falsified.

Several additional rank order correlations between the different categories of TPVB and student verbal behavior were performed as post hoc analyses. No significant associations were found with any of the additional conjectures. This analysis suggests that, for these 10 groups and for the observational categories used, the psychosocial content of teacher talk is not significantly associated in any way with the content of student verbal behavior, as specified by the Kroeber-Haan model.

DISCUSSION

Process-product research on the socioemotional facet of teaching suggests that it is better for teachers to act positively in order to enhance achievement gains. Because so few studies have examined the effect of teacher behavior on the process of learning, how or why "positive" teacher behaviors bring about student gains is not clearly understood. In addition, process-product research which stresses student gains in terms of test scores may be of little assistance to those adult education programs which emphasize psychosocial aspects in their instructional processes.

In this study the socioemotional facet of teaching was reconceptualized according to theories from ego psychology. Using a process-process approach student ego functions were posited as mediating the effects of teacher psychosocial verbal behavior in 10 adult instructional groups. Given the findings of prior research it was expected that positive teacher psychosocial verbal behaviors would be significantly associated with student coping behaviors. However, the study's findings suggest that the psychosocial content of teacher talk, regardless of the valence is not related to student ego functions. These findings run counter to much of the research literature on socioemotional qualities of classroom life. They also do not support several of the assumptions in adult education regarding "effective" adult instruction.

At least three positions may help explain these unusual findings. It is possible that 1) there is not a relationship between TPVB and student coping behaviors; 2) the study is methodologically flawed; or 3) the relationship between TPVB and student coping behaviors is more complicated than assumed in this study. The weight of the research evidence would suggest that the first explanation is not plausible.

Secondly, while this study should definitely be replicated with methodological improvements, these improvements are unlikely to substantially improve the very low correlation values obtained in this study. It is more feasible that the relationship is more complicated than is reflected in the initial conjecture. It is possible that this relationship is mediated by a number of variables, such as congruency between the psychosocial content of teacher interventions and 1) student behaviors (Fay, 1971); 2) the group culture (Davie, 1971); and 3) the ego identity of the group members (White, 1976). The extent to which GD-TSS students viewed this experience as mandatory or coercive may also be a significant variable in the teacher-student relationship. Each of these possibilities requires further study.

Several practical issues are raised by this study. While the adult education literature emphasizes the need for teachers to be positive and supportive, a very high percentage of GD-TSS teachers' verbal behaviors were not positive and supportive. In addition, very little time was spent with establishing trust, as evidenced by the very low percentage of Trust utterances. Furthermore, GD-TSS students range across the adult life span. Thus, we would expect a tendency for the psychosocial issues reflected in teacher talk to represent the particular psychosocial concerns of students in different ego-stages. However, this was generally not the case. Teacher utterances showed a predominance of Stage II concerns, suggesting a preoccupation in these groups with issues of control and authority. The question is whether this finding reflects concerns of the teacher or the students, or both. The significance and implications of these practical findings also need further study.

This study has demonstrated the potential usefulness of the ego psychology perspective for helping teachers in small adult instructional groups to interpret the socioemotional qualities of the instructional process. The frameworks utilized in this work can assist a teacher in attempting to interpret the meaning of their behavior as well as that of their students. Such a perspective can potentially enhance the role that adult educators play in facilitating the process of significant learning in adults by giving the teachers a way to place information and skills in a context of deeper, more personal meaning within the lives of their students.

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Literacy Usage among Older Adults

Abstract. This research probes the reading, writing, and computational activities of 66 older adults in order to describe the extent and nature of their use.

Problem. Many researchers have pointed to the high level of illiteracy among older adults in contrast to their low level of participation in adult basic education and other literacy education efforts. Kasworm and Courtenay (1982) claim that one-third of those over 55 are illiterate, and Kasworm (1982) describes the cohort over 65 as representing the lowest level of educational attainment (44% have eight or fewer years of schooling) and the highest level of functional illiteracy (33% are functionally illiterate in the life coping knowledge and skills areas) of any age cohort. Lumsden (1979) computes the incidence of illiteracy among the older adult population to be somewhere between 10 and 50%. Hunter and Harmon (1979) assert that the actual number of illiterate adults over 65 is unknown, and information about older adults is "even more elusive than data about the population as a whole." A low level of literacy notwithstanding, the United States Office of Education estimated that only 3.45% of the total 1977 adult basic education enrollment were adults over 65 years of age (Kasworm, 1981).

Furthermore, there exists little unanimity as to the definition of the literacy which older adults lack. Some have defined literacy by the number of grades completed or by a numerical standard equivalent to the number of grades completed. Others have defined it in terms of tasks or activities believed to be important. For example, before 1940, the Bureau of the Census defined literacy by whether a person could read or write a simple message in English or some other language (Kirsch & Guthrie, 493). For Bormuth literacy is "the ability to exhibit all of the behaviors a person needs in order to respond appropriately to all possible reading tasks" (1973). More directly, Carroll and Chall describe it as the ability "to read and understand the whole spectrum of printed materials one is likely to encounter in daily life" (1975). Various definitions such as these assume that there is a relationship between level of educational attainment and human performance, that particular behaviors are important for persons to exhibit, or that the general ability to read and write enables one to respond more favorably to one's environment.

Other definitions and assertions about literacy contain within them a more specific identification of the purpose for which this ability is needed. In the legislation passed by the Massachusetts Bay Colony in 1642, parents and masters were admonished to provide for the literacy needs of children and apprentices in order that they might read the Scriptures. The Adult Education Act of 1966 defines the purpose of literacy in terms of a person's capability to be productive and employable. In 1975, the Adult Performance Level Study anticipated that functional competency (the application of reading, writing, and other skills to particular knowledge areas) could be measured by success in education, income and education (1977), and the Harris study (1970) conceived of literacy in terms of survival. As in the case of the others, these definitions also are based on assumptions and value orientations with regard to the purpose for which literacy skills are to be used.

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The principal problem confronting the researcher in considering the role of literacy among older adults is the irrelevance of the tools and assumptions which are available. The use of grade level or grade level equivalency to describe the level of literacy of an older adult relies on a measure designed for another purpose applied to the person approximately one-half century earlier. Much of the literature describing functional literacy understands it in relation to tasks and social contexts which are foreign to most older adults. No research has been conducted to support the relevance of the Harris study (1970) to survival or the Adult Performance Level (1977) study to success among older adults. Courtenay, Stevenson, and Suhart have concluded that adequate definitions and measures of functional literacy designed specifically for older adults are nonexistent (1982).

Methodology. The purpose of this study is to investigate the reading, mathematics, and writing activities in which a sample of older adults is engaged and to describe the relationship between these activities and certain other characteristics of the subjects. Analysis of the data will provide an understanding of the use of literacy skills among older adults which may serve as the basis for a definition of literacy among these subjects and the broader population of older adults. The study is designed to be descriptive of the reading, computational, and writing activities of older adults without suggesting that any particular activities or level of activity is or ought to be normative.

In order to assess the role which literacy plays in the lives of adults over 65, interviews were conducted in 1985 with 66 older adults in a range of settings, including private homes, senior centers, adult learning centers, and a nursing home. The hour-long interview schedule probed perceptions of aging and retirement; activities involving reading, writing, and computation; and other leisure time activities. It also gathered data using the Life Satisfaction Index A (Neugarten, Havighurst, and Tobin, 1961), the Srole Anomia Scale (Srole, 1956), the Self-Directed Learning Participation Scale (Fisher, 1979), and a reading inventory for older adults which probed the frequency with which certain reading activities were performed. Data were analyzed using descriptive statistical methods and contingency analysis.

Findings. Of the subjects who were interviewed, 70% were female, and 55% were age 75 and above; the mean age was 78. The mean grade level of educational attainment of both subjects and their spouses was 12. Most (86%) had been employed in non-professional occupations prior to their retirement. Thirty-four per cent of the subjects lived in their own homes, 23% lived in apartments, and 43% lived in a nursing home; 21% of all subjects lived alone. Seventy-three per cent of the subjects described their health as somewhat good or very good; 26% described their health as not so good. The scores of those interviewed as measured according to the Hollingshead Two-Factor Index of Social Position (1957) subjects ranged from 73 (low socioeconomic status) to 16 with the mean being 53; possible range of scores using this instrument is from 77 to 11.

Among those interviewed, 38% were participating in or had participated in an educational activity such as a class, study group, workshop, or conference during the past year. Of these participants, 58% named one event, 21% two, and 21% three events in which they were participating or had participated during the past year. Approximately 41% of all those intervived were able to name one or more topics about which they wished to learn. On the Self-Directed Learning Participation Scale (Fisher, 1979), 36% of those interviewed identified at least five self-directed learning activities in which they engaged; the mean of self-directed learning activities for all subjects was 3.9.

A general level of activity was measured by assessing the number of different types of activities in which the subjects engaged, the frequency of their participation, the number of new activities acquired since age 65, and the degree to which the activity level of the subject has increased or decreased. Subjects engaged in an average of 3.5 types of leisure time activities, 71% on a daily or weekly basis. For approximately 40%, their activity level had decreased; 24% increased, and for 24% there had been no change. Over one third of the subjects were unable to name a new activity in which they had engaged since the age of 65.

The general well-being of subjects was measured using the Life Satisfaction Index A (Neugarten, Havighurst, and Tobin, 1961), a scale developed by these authors to measure successful aging. In addition, the Srole Anomia Scale (1956) was used to describe the level of alienation, loneliness, or lack of clear-cut expectations of society on the part of the subjects. On a scale of 20, the mean score of subjects on the Life Satisfaction Index was 14.3; the mean score of subjects on the Srole Anomia Scale was 3.0 on a scale of 5. This compares with mean scores of 14.8 and 2.38 respectively in a earlier study of over 400 active older adults (Fisher, 1979); the level of life satisfaction is comparable in both studies, although the level of anomia among subjects is higher in this present study.

When asked how much reading they did, 38% indicated that they read "very much," 23% "some," 32% "not very much," and 6% "none at all." When asked to estimate the amount of time spent reading each day, 38% said they read 2 or more hours, 29% 1 to 2 hours, and 15% less than 1 hour per day. The relationship of subjects' responses to these two questions was found to be statistically significant using the Tau b statistic (p = .0001). When asked if their reading ability improved or declined over the years, 49% said it had improved, 30% said it had declined, and 21% indicated there had been no change. Nearly all of the subjects affirmed that they understood what they read: 36% said they usually understood what they read very well, 45% some, with only 6% indicating that they did not understand very well the things they had read.

These findings compare with those of Sharon (1973, p. 157) in which he notes that the "average American adult who can read spends one hour and 46 minutes in reading on a typical day." Furthermore, the very old spend the least amount of time reading when compared to other age cohorts, with those older than 60 averaging 89 minutes per day. Pfeiffer and Davis (1971) in a study of 502 adults aged 46 to 71 found that the amount of time spent reading books and magazines amounted to 8.3 hours per week for men and 9.0 hours per week for women. They also found that time spent reading was significantly greater in the older age groups.

The amount of reading in which subjects engaged was related at a statistically significant level to several demographic characteristics: Age (p = .01), Level of Educational Attainment (p = .01), and Socioeconomic Status (p = .01). Younger subjects (age 74 and below) were more likely to engage in a greater amount of reading than older subjects (age 75 and above). Subjects with lower levels of educational attainment were likely to engage in lesser amounts of reading than subjects with higher levels of educational attainment: at least half of all the subjects who had been to college said they read "very much;" none of those who completed only grades 1 through 6 read "very much." Approximately 85% of those subjects who were in the upper half of the Social Position Scale were in the upper half of the amount of reading scale. Kingston (1979) noted that older adults who read regularly and routinely tend to have a somewhat higher level of education and social status than those who rarely read.

The frequency of participation in leisure time activities was found to be related to the amount of time devoted to reading at a statistically significant level using the Tau *b* statistic (p = .05). This would indicate some association between level of activity in general and level of reading activity in particular.

In addition, amount of reading was related to health at statistically significant level (p = §.01), with greater amounts of reading occurring among those subjects who rated their own health as good. Amount of reading was also related to place of residence at a statistically signficant level (p = §.05): over half of the persons living in the nursing home described their reading level as "not very much."

The self-assessed level of understanding of reading was related at a statistically significant level to these variables: health (p = .01), age (p = .05), level of educational attainment (p = .05), and place of residence (p = .0001). Those subjects with better health, in the lower age group, possessing some college education were more likely to have a higher level of understanding of their reading material. Reading understanding was also related at a statistically significant level to the amount of reading which the subjects did (p = .001), with those reading the most indicating the highest level of understanding.

Level of understanding was also related to the number of types of activities in which subjects participated as well as the number of self-directed learning projects undertaken. Higher levels of understanding were associated with higher levels of activity and greater numbers of self-directed learning projects.

The item identified by all subjects as "read the most" was for 35% the newspaper, 24% a magazine, and 18% a book. In Sharon's study (1973), most of the time for reading is consumed by newspapers, magazines, books, and job-related materials. According to Romani, reading interests of older adults described in library literature include "light romances with no sex, biographies, books in large print, westerns, mysteries, and no science fiction and no books containing violence" (1973, p. 392). Kingston (1981) concluded that "few of our elderly spend more than one hour per day reading and few read more than the daily newspaper, personal correspondence, or a favorite magazine" (p. 169, 170).

In response to the 27-item reading inventory, the calendar, newspaper, and street or traffic signs were read most frequently on a daily basis among all subjects; a letter received in the mail, a menu, and price, weight or size information while shopping were read most frequently on a weekly basis. Items suggested which were least likely to be read at all include income tax information, an insurance policy, or a stock or investment report.

Response of the participants indicated a lesser use of arithmetic than reading skills. When asked how much arithmetic they used, 8% said "very much," 15% "some," 64% "not very much, and 14% "none at all." Eleven per cent of the subjects indicated they had used numbers on the day of the interview, 18% during that week, and 12% during the preceding month. Favorite uses of computational skills included balancing checkbooks, counting change, and calculating the age of another person.

When asked about their writing activities, 21% of the subjects said they did "very much" writing, 11% "some," 41% "not very much, and 23% none. Estimated writing time for 4% of the subjects was 2 or more hours per day; for 9%, 1 to 2 hours per day; and for 44%, less than 1 hour per day. The most popular activity was writing letters or cards, although 4 per cent of the subjects wrote material for publication, and 3% kept their own journals.

Conclusions. The findings of this study indicate that 61% of those interviewed considered themselves readers with 67% devoting at least an hour a day to that purpose. Half of the subjects judged that their reading ability had improved over the years and over a third of those interviewed thought they understood what they read very well. The lack of independence among these variables plus those describing the frequency and length of time devoted to reading suggests that there is a general propensity to use, or not to use, reading skills among older adults.

In turn, these variables are related to others, such as activity level, health, age, place of residence, and educational level, raising the question whether the use of reading, writing, and computational skills, like participation in educational activities generally (Fisher, 1979), may be predicted by these and other prior influences.

This study, therefore, joins several others in claiming that many of the characteristics and activities of older adults are predictable from earlier experience. The study failed to identify a strong and consistent relationship between any of the literacy measures and the life satisfaction measures. On the other hand, none of the subjects were served by activities designed to increase or enhance their literacy competency or to encourage the benefits which come from consistent use of reading and writing skills.

If one were to proffer a tentative definition of literacy for older adults on the basis of this study, such a definition would need to acknowledge the prior use of reading, writing, and computational skills; the present need to use them; and the physical capability to engage in these activities as integral components of an overall understanding of the role of literacy among older adults.

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The Impact of the Learning Period and Circumstances Upon the Adult Learner: The Full-time Adult Undergraduate

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ABSTRACT

This paper focuses on the experiences of full-time adult undergraduates, the characteristics of this unique period of learning, and the effects on the individual learners.

INTRODUCTION

Along with their continuing interest in the characteristics and diversity of adult learners, adult educators have placed a great deal of emphasis on learning situations and environments. The importance of the interaction between the individual and the learning situation and the resulting impact on the quality of learning has made this area one of key interest for both the theoretician and the practitioner. Houle underscored this point, "Any episode of learning occurs in a specific situation and is profoundly influenced by that fact" (1972, p. 32).

Some kinds of learning also take place within a learning period -- a longer but defined time frame in which specific learning activities take place. The learning period may begin when one starts a program of study and end when a specific goal is reached (e.g. a diploma, degree, certificate, or license).

This paper focuses on the nature of a specific learning period and the circumstances connected with it which impact the adult learner. The purpose of this study was to explore the experiences of adults who became full-time undergraduate students in a traditional "day" program at a small four-year college.

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METHODOLOGY

A qualitative study was carried out with 32 adult students (8 men and 24 women) 25 years of age or older, using semi-structured interviews as the primary research approach. Systematic procedures, such as those stressed by Glaser and Strauss (1967), were followed carefully in both the data collection and analysis. The tape-recorded interviews, memoranda, and field notes were entered into computer files. Ongoing data analysis took place throughout the study. A coding system was devised to organize different topics and themes as they emerged from the data.

FINDINGS

Several important themes developed which concerned the nature of this learning period and the circumstances related to it which affected these adult students. The period of full-time study (from one to four years) was for these adult undergraduates a temporary, unique time which was in many ways both untypical and unexpected. Full-time study was qualitatively, as well as quantitatively, different from part-time study.

Taking one course, one evening a week is a real added burden for most adult students, but enrolling for a full load of 12-15 credits was quite a different matter. As a full-time student the role of learner became a primary one, usually added to several already established adult roles (spouse, parent, worker, etc.).

Much of the literature dealing with adult learners assumes that they are part-time learners, with the student role a secondary one to other adult responsibilities. Therefore, various models, while usually appropriate for a discussion of part-time learners, are inadequate to deal with full-time adult undergraduates. For example, Cross (1981) presents two such models, which deal with the adult learner: the COR (Chain-of-Response) model which offers a conceptual framework for understanding certain variables relating to participation and CAL (Characteristics of Adults as Learners) which is a conceptual framework useful when dealing with part-time volunteer learners. These and other similar models are not meant to concentrate on the nature of a particular period of learning, such as full-time undergraduate study.

The period as a full-time student was unquestionably a major transition period for these adults. Their time in college was one of growth and change, but it was also a "time between." They were in a state of transition between their pre-college and post-college worlds. For some it was a time between:

- being a homemaker and a self-supporting person;
- having one career and beginning a new one;
- an old social world and a new one;
- dependence and independence;
- insecurity and self-confidence.

A few studies also have shown that this is a significant transition period. Levine (1979) titled her report on adult women in college, "Between the Stages of Life." She found that many adult women experience changes in their lifestyle, personal circumstances, or their feelings about themselves. According to Levine many of these women used "the college experience as a time of exploration between the stages of life" (p. 156).

These adult undergraduates found themselves to be a definite minority among the traditional-aged "day" students. Although they reported that their interactions with the young students were usually not a real problem, a number of these adults became acutely aware of their own ages. As one of them put it, "I realized I was getting old."

A different type of reaction to being the "minority group" was exhibited by those adults who called themselves the "Over-the Hill Gang" (an informal social group which developed on campus). They had fun boasting of their "older student" status, which they flaunted on signs, tee shirts, and pins.

This period as a student also affected the socioeconomic status of many of these adults. In most cases financial sacrifices were made in order to be able to study full time. Relationships with family members and friends sometimes suffered as a result.

In a very different way their established socioeconomic level affected other adult students. Women, in particular, whose husbands had a substantial income suffered from the reaction of friends to their decision to go to college. "Why do you need to go back to school? You don't need to work!"

This period of time spent as a full-time college student had a profound effect on the life worlds of these adults. Many felt they were placed between competing social worlds. They often felt caught between their dual worlds; the (new) campus world of peers, faculty, administrators, and 18-22 year olds and their (old) off-campus world of family, friends, and community. Most moved between these two spheres and did not try to integrate them. Generally keeping these life worlds separate was easier than trying to overlap them. For example, a school friend who was brought home may have little in common with the student's spouse.

The degree of support (or lack of support) from family members and friends affected the tension between these life worlds. In families the support ranged from active encouragement and help with family responsibilities to open disapproval and interference. Similarly, some pre-college friends were very supportive while others were openly hostile. A woman in her fifties reported that going to school was "beginning to make a big chasm" between her and her friends.

A Concept of Social Fit also emerged from the data and reflects this tension between the life worlds of these full-time students. Most of those adults felt that they were outsiders and did not "fit" on the campus which was the community for the younger resident students. The reflections of one adult student, a senior, express these feelings well: "Most of my four years I kind of really felt isolated. I feel like I don't fit here really. Yet, I don't feel like I fit outside anymore either." "Where they lived" often appeared to be a greater separating factor than the difference in ages.

Like this 35-year-old woman, many others described themselves as no longer fitting comfortably in their previously established life worlds where friends and family members perceived them as "different" and frequently were not supportive of their full-time student role. The degree of fit in these two life worlds during this period influenced the campus social interactions of many of these adults, who formed their own informal peer support networks.

Like some of the subjects in this study, Rawlins (1979) reported that the over-thirty undergraduates she interviewed often felt that they did not really belong on the campus and felt isolated. She described some adult students as undergoing "continual role transformations."

For some adults this period is a better "fit" than it is for others. The nature of the fit also may change as these individuals change. They may enjoy the learning experience, but still not feel comfortable on the campus.

Another factor appeared to affect the formation of peer support groups, the number of active adult roles a student had (roles such as spouse, parent, worker, sibling, volunteer, etc.). Most of these students with at least four active roles also showed a higher degree of social interaction on campus. This group talked about the value and importance they attached to the informal groups of adult friends on campus where they found the support they needed -- often the support which was lacking from family, friends, or both.

Adding the role of student -- in this case full-time student --on top of other roles produced great tensions for many adults. Time constraints were very evident because their other roles usually did not decrease to compensate for the added student role. Conflicts and guilt feelings were common results of these time pressures.

These various circumstances related to this unique period of learning help to explain why most of these students valued the friendships and support they found among their adult peers on campus. These networks of friends provided much needed support and helped them deal with this "time between."

For adults the period as a full-time undergraduate is also one of perspective transformation. Mezirow (1978) described the learning process as qualitative, not just additive, and called it "perspective transformation," which involved a change in the way adults see themselves and their relationships. In this kind of learning they restructure their "meaning perspectives."

From this viewpoint the adult who decides to study full-time moves into a very different period and setting and enters a unique time of perspective transformation. Because of their full-time status, feelings of not being a part of the campus community, and moving between two major social spheres, one can also argue that the transformation process is different for these adults than it is for part-time "evening" students.

The various characteristics of this learning period which have been described have reinforced it as a unique time. Each of these adult learners will undoubtedly be a different person after graduation. The changes which result from this period of perspective transformation will vary from one individual to another. However the strength of the factors which affect this period of learning suggest that an adult does not go through this "time between" without being transformed by the process.

Mezirow also emphasized the importance of support and association with others who share the new perspective. Moving into a new perspective successfully is dependent upon this support and reinforcement. Such sustaining relationships provide help in relating to others who may not have grown in the same directions. Many of the adult students in this study relied on supportive peer networks as they dealt with familiies, friends, and community members who did not understand their period of transformation. The mutual self-help they shared promoted each one's ability to assume new career and interpersonal roles after graduation from college.

DISCUSSION AND IMPLICATIONS

Taking a closer look at specific periods of learning can have broad implications for adult educators. The results of this study suggest that the characteristics of the learning period can have a significant impact on the learner and the learner's life worlds. For the practitioner this information can help in dealing with such issues as retention of adult students.

If "blended life plans" become more common in the future, more adults may experience periods of full-time study or training throughout their lives. Such learning periods (whether one month, six months, a year, or longer) may come about in response to personal or professional goals and interests. Further research studies will be needed to explore different types of learning periods.

A better understanding of the factors related to this particular learning period and those for other types of learning efforts can help adult educators foster a range of educational settings and experiences which encourage individual self-development that leads toward new meaning perspectives.

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CLANDESTINE LEARNING AMONG SLAVES: EVIDENCE FROM THE FEDERAL WRITERS PROJECT SLAVE NARRATIVES 1936 - 1938

Abstract

To discover the slave perspective on education I reviewed the collection of ex-slave narratives entitled "The American Slave," edited by George P. Rawick, and gathered as a portion of the Federal Writer's Project, 1936-1938.

Introduction

The field of adult education has neglected the history of Black adult education. The adult education literature is conspicuous by an absence of Black history and literature that reflects Afro-Americana. The history of Black adult education can add important insights to the experience of adult learners but adult education leaders in their major works dealing with the history of adult education fail to mention Black history. This evidence suggests that adult education leaders do not value the contribution Afro-Americana makes to the history of adult education, or they see adult education differently, or they have not thought about it. It is my view that one can not have comprehension of the totality of America's development without understanding the historical development of Black society, culture and community.

The purpose of this study is to unearth the rich contribution that Afro-Americana can make to the field of adult education and to gain a perspective on the slave experience in North America from those who had been slaves. There is a great deal of information on slavery from the perspective of the slave institution but we know very little about the education of the slaves from the slave perspective. There is evidence from the Federal Writer's Project Slave Narratives of the Works Progress Administration 1936-38 that points to the fact many adult slaves utilized clandestine methods to achieve learning under their oppressive circumstance. I propose to contribute to the building of a new conceptual model through this data base that offers direct testimony from the slaves themselves. I propose to give life to a portion of American people who according to some scholars did not lead noteworthy lives, and appeared as faceless and nameless people in American history. Thus Black history can inform the general literature base of adult education which may aid scholars in gaining an understanding of how learning technique and the transmission of culture was accomplished by adult slaves.

Research Approach

To discover the slave perspective on education I reviewed the twenty-five hundred narratives, entitled "The American Slave," edited by George P. Rawick, and gathered as a portion of the Federal Writer's Project, 1936-38. I discovered through my research enough evidence to conclude that clandestine

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learning did prominently exist among Black slaves. What I mean by clandestine learning is the action of Black slaves to gain levels of literacy by planning their own learning experiences, choosing their own learning resources, evaluating their own learning experiences despite laws or sentiments prohibiting learning. I define learning more specifically as the act of gaining knowledge, understanding, or skill by study, personal experience or memorization for the purpose of enriching the slave's own life.

To organize the data, which indicated the process of clandestine learning, I devised a data gathering sheet that recorded: 1) name of ex-slave, 2) age at the time of the interview, 3) reference in the collection, 4) family background, 5) reoccurring themes, 6) example of clandestine learning, 7) motivation for learning, 8) penalty for learning, and 9) observer's comments. I have also utilized Qualog, a computer program that organizes the data by listing themes, sub-themes and then codes them according to categories of examples of clandestine learning. The narratives were coded to four dominant themes: 1) learned "letter" (knowledge of alphabet to some spelling), 2) learned to read but not to write, 3) learned to read and write, 4) learned to read, write, cipher, and some grammer.

Testimonies were collected and analyzed by the constant comparative method. I have researched the meaning and process of what slaves did and how they accomplished certain learning tasks using clandestine methods, with attention to select categories, descriptors, key words, and relevant phrases that describe what is there and the nature of what learning was from the perspective of the slave. Particular phrases and terms such as, "I wanted to do"... "I wanted to obtain"... "I wanted to understand"... "I learned in this way"... "My understanding came by"... "I gained this skill by"... are particularly important. To make sense out of the facts obtained from the collection, I have drawn inferences concerning time, element, geographic conditions, and significant heritage.

Analysis of the Data

The results should uncover: 1) what are the forms of clandestine learning in the narratives? 2) what is the degree of clandestine learning in the narratives? 3) what contributed to the growth or decline of clandestine learning? 4) what did the slaves begin to see as important as a result of clandestine learning? 5) how did the slaves find the resources they needed to accomplish learning? 6) what indicators might there be as to how people in a geographical area may have accomplished clandestine learning tasks in comparison to slaves in another geographical area?

The significance of my research is that I am exploring a form of learning, "clandestine learning," that has been absent from the literature and I am contributing to the incorporation of the Black experience in the adult education literature. Moreover, the intention of the study is to compile evidence from former slaves on aspects of the literacy process: who taught them, the context in which learning took place, and why slaves were taught or taught themselves.

Contrary to popular belief, there were few specific laws against owners teaching their slaves. by the 1850's the legal codes of only four states, North and South Carolina, Georgia, and Virginia prohibited the teaching of individual slaves to read and write, and Virginia's laws did not ban owners from teaching their own slaves.[2] Evidence from the narratives suggest that the greatest hindrance to clandestine learning was due to patrols, mobs, and social ostracism which faced slaves and owners who taught their slaves. Irella Walker, ex-slave from Texas recalls how she overcame these obstacles and "stole" her learning:

> Old man Jack James work at day and have night school at night. He have long boards for benches and let dem down by ropes from de rafters, and have blue back spellers. He point to de letters with de long broom straw and dat's how we larn our ABC's.

Susan Broaddus, ex-slave, used her memory to record the words that her master would spell out thinking that she would not be able to interpret them or that she had an interpreter. She used her gift of memorization to inform other slaves when they were going to be sold:

> Was servin' gal fo' Missus. Used to have to stan' behin' her at de table an' reach her de salt an' syrup an' anything else she called fo'. Ole Marsa would spell out reall fas' anything he don't want me to know 'bout. One day Marsa was fit to be tied, he was in setch a bad mood. Was ravin' bout de crops, an' taxes, an' de triflin' niggers he got to feed. "Gonna sell em, I swear fo' Christ, I gonna sell 'em,' 'he says. Den ole Missus ask which ones he gonna sell an' tell him quick to spell it. Den he spell out G-A-B-E, and R-U-F-U-S, Course I dere without battin an eye, an' makin' believe I didn't even hear him, but I was packin' dem letters up in my haid all de time. An' soon's I finished dishes I rushed down to my father an' sav em'. Father say quiet-like: "Gabe and Rufus," an' tol' me to go back to de house an' say I ain't been out. De next day Gabe and Rufus was gone- dey had run away.

Given the real dangers involved in learning to read and write, slave initiated learning exhibited many creative solutions to the problems of tools for reading and the discovery of the time and space to use them. Gus Feaster, ex-slave from South Carolina, shared his experiences with a fellow slave by the name of Edmund Carlisle:

> Dey never wanted us to git no larning. Edmund Carlisle, smartest nigger I is ever seed. He cut out blocks from pine bark on de pine tree and smooth it. Git white oak ... or hickory stick. Git a ink ball from de oak trees, and on Sadday and Sunday slip off whar de white folks wouldn't know 'bout it. He use stick fer pen and drap oak ball in water and dat be his ink atter it done stood all night. He larnt to write his name and how to make figures. Marse Jule and Bill, two of Marse Tom's boys, found out dat Edmund could write and dey wanted to whip him, but Marse Tom wouldn't let 'em.

Some ex-slaves attributed their insatiable craving for knowledge to some leadership role bestowed upon them. Their desire to learn, along with their belief that such skills would expand their abilities is best exemplified in the narrative told by the Reverend W.E. Northcross - born a slave in 1840, in Colbert County, Alabama:

> I began to lead prayer meetings. Still I felt that there was more for me to do. I felt sure that I was called to preach, though "unlearned and ignorant." Being "unlearned and ignorant my heart silently murmured-- At this time I did not know "A" from "B", but I met a man who could read a little. This man liked me and promised to teach how to read, provided I would keep it secret. This I gladly did... I secured a blue-back speller and went out on the mountain every Sunday to meet this gentleman, to be taught. I would stay on the mountain all day without food. I continued this way for a year and succeeded well... The mountain was the great school I attended... Some of my own people told my master that I had a book trying to read...and he simply told me that he heard that I had a book, and if I was caught with it I would be hung... Notwithstanding my master's counsel I thirsted for knowledge and got some old boards and carried them to my house to make a light by which I could see how to read. I would shut the doors, put one end of a board into the fire, and proceed to study, but whenever I heard the dogs barking I would throw my book under the bed and peep and listen to see what was up. If no one was near I would crawl under the bed, get my book, come out, lie flat on my stomach, and proceed to study until the dogs would again disturb me. I did this for many nights. I continued in this way to try to learn to spell and read as best I could.

In 1867 W.E. Northcross was ordained to the gospel ministry by white ministers and later became the pastor of the First Baptist Church at Tuscumbia, Alabama.

Some domestic workers and household slaves tricked white children into aiding them to learn how to read. Moses Slaughter's mother, the housekeeper, would say to the owner's daughter:

> Come here, Emily, Mamma will keep your place for you, and while little Emily read, "Momma Emalina" followed each line until she too was a fluent reader and could teach her own children.

The data gathered suggest that researchers can gain new insights into the slave experience from the preliminary educational and educational perspective of those who had been slaves. When we view this portion of history from the perspective of the slave we are given another view other than the master's perspective who ruled slaves historically and appear now to rule their written history as well. Further investigation into the narratives has revealed additional information on the process of clandestine learning, and this evidence suggest a more vivid picture of clandestine learning emerging along the lines of all emerging themes.

The notion that slaves were not contented or accepting wholly of their duties as slaves is not a new concept. What is new is that the literature outside of the narratives and sources that utilize the narratives reveal very little of the process of how slaves accomplished learning tasks, skills, and methods to negotiate their daily lives in order that it meant something different to them. If we are to understand what the slave experience meant to the Black slaves then the slave narrative is the best source. The narratives allow the researcher to go from "one slave to the next," and by and by the story of slavery from the perspective of the slave becomes clearer.

The evidence from the narratives suggests strongly that the view of the sterotypical slave drawn from the masters' testimony is thoroughly unfounded. Literate slaves helped each other to learn and many of those given this clandestine opportunity during slavery used their learning to further advance themselves, thus supporting the belief by slaves in the liberating aspect of literacy as a form of resistance, but we can take this notion only to a point. The temptation to romanticize the narratives by suggesting that all processes towards literacy is the result of liberation motives is false. The evidence from the narratives suggest that religious leadership, mobility, spreading of and the gaining of information, religious education and practical value are motivations for learning among slaves.

NOTES

[1] In leading research works such as The Adult Education Movement In the United States (Knowles, 1976), History of Adult Education (Knowles, 1973), Adult Education Foundation and Practice, Philosophical Foundations of Adult Education (K. Patricia Cross), Adults As Learners (Huey Long), Lifelong Learning (Roger Hiemstra), there is no mention of Black adult education history.

[2] North Carolina, Revised Statutes, 1837, pp. 209, 578; 1854, pp. 218-19; George M. Stroud, A Sketch of the Laws relating to Slavery (Philadelphia, 1856), pp. 58-63; Code of the State of Georgia (Atlanta, 1861), pp. 878-879); Digest of the Laws of Georgia (Philadelphia, 1831), pp. 316-17; Code of Virginia, 1849, pp. 747-48. Alabama had passed a law in 1932 prohibiting the teaching of slaves or free Blacks, and it had appeared in the Digest of the Laws of Alabama, 1893, p. 543, but is not in the Code of the State of Alabama, 1852. Similarly, Louisiana's law fining or imprisoning 'all persons who teach any slave' to read or write passed in 1830, appeared in a digest of its laws published in 1841, but did not form part of its 1856 revised Black Code, though other provisions of the same act did (Louisiana Digest of Laws, 1841, pp. 521-22; Louisiana Revised Statues, 1856, p. 54.). Mississippi revised its slave code in 1831 to prohibit Blacks from exercising functions of ministers unless on the premises of a slave-owner with his permission, but did not ban teaching of slaves to read. (Code of Mississippi, 1798-1848, p. 534). Other states including Maryland and Missouri, banned public assemblages of Blacks for religious or educational purposes, but did not penalize individuals teaching individual slaves or free Blacks to read or write. (Maryland Code, 1860, p. 462; Missouri Laws, 1847, pp. 103-104; Missouri Revised Statues, 1856). Moreover, management of their own slaves, preferring to think of their plantations as kingdoms in themselves, where each planter "exercises in his own person, all the high functions of an unlimited monarch," to quote Whitemarsh Seabrook in his essay on the Management of Slaves (Charleston, 1834), p. 15. (These valuable notes on slave law were found in an article by Janet Cornelius (Department of History at Danville Area Community College, Danville, Illinois). "We Slipped and Learned to Read:" Slave Accounts of the Literary Process, 1830-1865, Phylon (Vol. XLIV No. 3, 1983, p. 173-74.

An Analysis and Reformulation of McClusky's Concept of Margin for Predicting Adult Dropout

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Phases of relative stability and change are the norm in the adult life cycle. Adults progress through many transitions in life. Some are due to personal development while others are a result of social change. Aslanian and Brickell (1980) have stated that life transitions challenge adults to grow and they have hypothesized that transitions prompt adults to engage in a learning experience to help them manage these transitions. Cross (1981) has suggested that "the greatest opportunities for learning occur at transition points..." (p.240). This may be true, but adjusting to a formal learning setting is itself a transition. Not only must adults cope with the original transition that precipitated the need to learn, but they must also cope with a second transition to the role of student which carries with it the potential for a variety of psychosocial problems. The result of this double transition may be that the adult learner will not have the psychological capability and social stability to complete a formal learning experience.

A concept used to refer to the excess of personal and socioeconomic abilities over the personal and social demands required in growth transitions is margin (McClusky, 1963). Main (1979) described margin as a condition of learning which "allows a person to invest in life expansion projects and experiences including learning experiences" (p.23). As a result, the concept of margin appears to capture the dynamic relationship of change and stability in the adult's life and therefore may hold promise in understanding and explaining dropout in adult education.

The purpose of this paper is to describe the difficulties of operationalizing McClusky's (1963) Power-Load Margin (PLM) formula and then to suggest a theoretical framework and deduced conceptual order which is capable of being operationalized in predicting dropout in adult education. Finally, the results of an empirical test are briefly summarized and discussed.

The Concept of Margin

McClusky's (1963) PLM formula consists of three components corresponding to the concepts power(P), load(L), and margin(M). McClusky defines power as the sum of the abilities and resources possessed by an individual while load represents the demands that an individual must bear up to. The third component of the PLM formula, margin, is formally defined as the ratio of power to load. Margin is that excess of power over load which assists the individual in coping with life and its unexpected demands. The PLM formula was an attempt to reflect the many demands and changes, both psychologically and socially, that may have an impact upon an individual during the adult years.

Margin was originally proposed by McClusky (1963) within a developmental framework. He described the tendencies of self protection and goal seeking as being characteristics of adulthood. The implication by McClusky is that self protection or stability is associated with excessive load demands while goal seeking or change is associated with a margin of power. Further to the developmental paradigm, an insufficient margin of power over load reduces the number of choices or alternatives possessed by the adult and the potential for growth is therefore limited. Conversely, since margin gives the power of choice over a wide range of alternatives, the more margin a person possesses, the greater the freedom and autonomy within his life space. This autonomy in turn provides the capability for the individual to invest in life expansion projects such as a learning experience.

The usefulness of the PLM formula is dependent upon whether it can be operationalized. The main difficulty of explicating and operationalizing the concepts of power and load is that they do not appear to be distinct concepts. Many of the variables could be conceived of as contributing both to effective performance of life tasks and as demands made upon a person. For example, in a similar situation intellectual ability can be seen as a power factor for one person but as a load factor for another, depending on the individual's functional intelligence. Variables such as ability exist on a continuum with power and load at the extremes and therefore cannot be classified clearly and consistently using power and load as defined by McClusky. It would seem that few variables could be classified distinctly according to such a dichotomy as power and load.

Another difficulty is to conceive of resources (i.e., power) such as income and time as making a positive contribution to performance. It would appear that some factors may inhibit performance by their presence or absence, but can have no direct positive influence upon the acquisition of skills, knowledge, or concepts.

Although the PLM formula was developed within a developmental framework it remains an intuitive isolated concept since it is not embedded in a formal theoretical model. Because of this, difficulties are encountered in attempting to operationalize the PLM formula. Dumont and Wilson (1967), in their discussion of concept formation, suggested that intuitive isolated concepts cannot be evaluated "because they do not operate within the context of a formal theory" (p.998), and therefore, tend to be ambiguous. This seems to be applicable to the PLM formula, although, this is not to say that it holds little promise. The generic concept of margin certainly has great potential in attempting to understand the behavior of the adult learner. In general, it emphasizes the need to appreciate the environmental variables that may significantly influence the adult learner's persistence, and in particular, it suggests that a variety of abilities and demands may predispose the learner to success or failure in the learning setting.

Considering the above comments the greatest difficulty with the PLM formula is that it is not embedded in a formal theory. The first step in rectifying this is the creation of a conceptual order (analogous to power and load) of the many psychosocial variables associated with the problem of dropout. Such a typology would provide a means of coping with the complexity of adult learner behavior and provide the foundation for a prediction model. The theoretical framework used to derive this typology was the general system theory paradigm.

Theoretical Framework

The general system paradigm was chosen as a frame of reference because of its holistic perspective and concern with interrelationships within a complex system. It was also consistent with many theoretical models of participation and dropout in that it adopts a broad psychosocial framework that lends itself to the analysis of the interaction of the person and the environment.

General system theory evolved largely from the work of Ludwig von Bertalanffy (1950) who found that "there are principles which apply to systems in general, whatever the nature of their component elements or the relations or 'forces' between them" (p.139). Rapaport (1978) stated that general system theory "is primarily concerned with the structures of systems as defined by the relations which the parts of a system have to each other, in the way these relations determine the dynamic behavior of the system (its passage from state to state), and the history of the system i.e., its own development as a result of the interactions between it and its environment" (p.145).

The concept of a system open to the influence of other systems in its environment makes general system theory suitable for dealing with adults within their social milieu. General system theory provides the paradigm which can appropriately provide for the holistic perspective to conceptualize and guide the study of complex interrelationships.

The focus of this research was to account for the variables associated with the behavioral change and stability of the adult learner. A morphogenetic social system model, developed by Buckley (1967), was used to assist in understanding how a system may change and yet remain dynamically stable. The model is that of a complex adaptive organization "of interacting components with an internal source of tension, the whole engaged in continuous transaction with its varying external and internal environment such that" (Buckley, 1967, p.128) there is an accumulation of information, meanings, attributes, and tendencies. It is a holistic model which views the system as an interconnected unity with truth existing both objectively and subjectively.

In the morphogenetic model, the system is an organization reflecting alternatives and corresponding constraints. Neither functional autonomy nor external contingencies are overemphasized initially. Both the system and its environment transform the other through the process of constant interaction. An inherent characteristic of a morphogenetic system is the tension or stress within and between the interacting components which necessitates constant adjustment and adaptation for the system. This suggests that for the adult learner and the corresponding social milieu there is a complex of forces and tensions with a multiplicity of interactions. Before the behavior of the adult learner can begin to be understood, some order must be found among the relevant systems and their corresponding forces and attributes.

A Learner/Environment Typology

As a result of careful study and analysis of the morphogenetic system and its assumptions, a typology was deduced that appeared to account for many variables relevant to adult learner behavior. It was hypothesized that the change and stability of the adult learner could be understood using five broad classes of variables; motivations (intrinsic and extrinsic), capabilities, and constraints (intrinsic and extrinsic). It was these groups of variables within the adult learner's psychosocial environment that were seen as being relevant to coping with change. Together these variables represent an indication of the learner's resilience or ability to adapt successfully to change.

Motivations and constraints are both viewed as being extrinsic and intrinsic forces and tensions; that is, they may exist in the learner's environment or within the learner him/herself. This is not the case for the learner's capabilities, however, since they are seen as inherent to the individual. Further, capabilities are associated with the forces of change. Constraints may be thought of as a mediating variable since they do not create change but have an influence on how much change will take place and how well the system can adapt.

The following definitions will serve to explicate this hypothesized typology:

(1) Motivations: the combination of extrinsic and intrinsic forces and tensions which result from need and attitudinal dispositions that originate either internally or externally and manifest themselves in behavior to initiate change.

Motivations are those forces of change that impact upon the individual. They are the perceived needs and attitudes of the individual resulting from changes within the individual and the environment. Motivations are demands made by and upon the individual that must be resolved.

(2) Capability: the intrinsic hierarchical differentiation which is responsible for the adaptation to the forces of change and the eventual stability of the system.

Capabilities are the knowledge, skills, and problem solving abilities gained from experience as well as the innate intelligence of the individual.

(3) Constraints: the extrinsic and intrinsic structures and attributes which may restrict the system's ability to adapt to systemic forces.

Constraints are those barriers and dispositions which impede the individual's ability to cope. These variables are often difficult to assess since they never create change or stability in themselves but are most often cited by adult students as reasons for not participating in or dropping out of a formal learning setting.

Research Question

The focal point of this study was the development of an adult learner-environment typology to order the complex array of psychosocial variables and to serve as a guide for empirical research and model building. The research question therefore concerned the separability and identifiability of the hypothesized learner-environment typological classifications. In short, is the proposed typology isomorphic with a chosen set of empirical referents?

Design and Results

Instruments and variables were selected based upon previous research and their apparent correspondence to each of the hypothesized classifications. Although space does not permit the listing of all the eighteen variables, the instruments used were the Social Readjustment Rating Scale, Differential Aptitude Test: Verbal, Adjective Check List, Tennessee Self Concept Scale, study time estimate, and perceived financial concern. The sample consisted of 92 adult learners enrolled in tenth grade English and math courses. These courses were part of a high school completion program designed for students who were eighteen years of age or older, or who had been out of school at least one full year.

Factor analysis was used to find an underlying structure for the selected variables. Since this was an exploratory investigation, a common factor model was employed and combined with an orthogonal rotation to determine the factor pattern and simple structure respectively.

Considering the hypothesized typology and more importantly, the interpretability of the factors, five factors were retained. The factor structure after rotation corresponded reasonably well to the proposed typology. The variance accounted for by the five factors was 72 percent.

A Prediction Model

The manner in which a system changes was hypothesized to be determined by five sets of variables; motivation (extrinsic and intrinsic), capabilities, and constraints (extrinsic and intrinsic). It is further hypothesized that a simultaneous assessment of these five variables (i.e., factor scores) would produce a measure of the system's stability. Assuming that these factors correspond to relevant psychosocial variables within the adults' suprasystem, a logical corollary of this typology would be a linear model of these typological factors reflecting the resilience of the adult learner to cope with the vagaries of returning to school. An advantage of this conceptual model would be to test the predictability of phenomena such as dropout in adult education using factor scores calculated from the factor structure.

This prediction model, referred to as the resilience model, is a hypothesized measure of an individual's ability to cope with the many demands during periods of transition and development. Periods of transition require a reserve to maintain stability while development, whether it be economic or personal, requires a certain capacity (i.e., resilience) for self transformation. It is hypothesized that a linear combination of various motivation, capability, and constraint variables will define this resilience. The definition and formulation for resilience follows:

$$R_i = T_{ij} + T'_{ij} + Cp_{ij} + Cn_{ij} + Cn'_{ij}$$

R: resilience
T: motivation (extrinsic)
T': motivation (intrinsic)
Cp: capability
Cn: constraint (extrinsic)
Cn': constraint (intrinsic)

i = person
j = variable

Development and growth requires the necessary resilience to withstand psychosocial disruption and its concomitant costs. In addition to the cost of personal development, the transition to the role of student necessitates considerable adjustment for most adults. The ability to adjust to change is dependent upon a variety of extrinsic and intrinsic factors and therefore to understand why adult students drop out of a formal learning program is to understand the total sphere of motivations, capabilities, and constraints that impinge on the adult learner.

Summary

The adult learner-environment typology presented here was an attempt to conceptualize psychological, social, and environmental forces that might influence adult learner behavior. By means of the structure inherent in this typology, the adult learner-environment typology and the resilience model can provide a means to interpret and guide research with the expectation that testable theory in adult education may result.

In contrast to margin the resilience conceptual model is more consistent and precise in terms of its conceptualization and statistical formulation. This conceptualization is not to be construed as a refinement of the PLM formula since the PLM formula is an isolated concept and resilience is operationally defined. In addition, there exists no relationship between power and load, as defined by McClusky, and the five elements of the resilience concept which evolved from a systems analysis.

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ISSUES IN THE DEVELOPMENT OF OPEN LEARNING
A CASE STUDY

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The training of Instructors and Supervisors through open learning is new to Britain. This paper reports on research on a client-centred curriculum development model for open learning.

INTRODUCTION

The paper will consider the organisational development and material piloting of the Oxfordshire Project for Training Instructors and Supervisors (OPTIS). OPTIS is an open learning programme that adopted a client-centred, 'bottom-up', approach to its curriculum development.

The paper is forwarded in three parts. The first part addresses the issues relating to the setting up and curriculum development within the project. The second part looks at the methods used to evaluate the suitability of the curriculum materials. Finally, part three will consider a selective review of the evaluation findings.

Firstly, however, the OPTIS project is located within the overall framework for open learning recently introduced into Britain.

THE BRITISH CONTEXT

In 1981, the British Government introduced its New Training Initiative (NTI) through the Manpower Services Commission. This initiative was a response to the failure of British commerce and industry to compete successfully in international markets. As stated by Bryan Nicholson, the Chairman of the Manpower Services Commission (MSC):

> 'To close the gap between Britain and her competitors, which has been brought out so clearly in competence and competition'.
> (Nicholson, 1985)

In the NTI the Government spelt out the need for:

> '... urgent and radical changes to our training arrangements if our industry and commerce and our work force - both young and adult - are to be adequately prepared to face the future'.
> (MSC 1981:4)

To this end the NTI was to address three specific objectives. These related to initial and apprenticeship training, work-related education and training, for anyone under the age of 18 years of age and adult training. With respect to the latter, the objective was to:

> '... open up widespread opportunities for adults, whether employed, unemployed or returning to work, to acquire, increase or update their skills and knowledge, during the course of their working lives'.
> (MSC, 1984:3)

As a means of satisfying this objective, the government initiated through the MSC, the 'OPEN TECH' programme. The OPEN TECH provided money for the 'pump priming' of new distance-learning projects. Projects to be set up for the retraining, and updating of the work force. By the end of 1985 140 innovative OPEN TECH projects had been funded.

1. OPTIS ORGANISATION AND CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT

OPTIS was set up in 1983 as one of the multitude of nationally funded projects accountable to the MSC under its OPEN TECH programme. Its aim was to help Youth Training Scheme (YTS) work placement Instructors and Supervisors improve their training skills, at a time, place and pace that would suit their own personal circumstances. Its "task" was seen initially by its Directorate "to prepare, develop and distribute learning materials, including work-books, videos, audio cassettes, wall charts and other packaged items which will assist both those directly involved with YTS trainees, and those colleagues with a staff development role". However, at the outset, with only limited government short range funding (two years), OPTIS - as with other OPEN TECH projects - had to develop a product that could be effectively marketed within the life span of the support. Such a constraint required the creation of both a quality (saleable) product and an efficient production process.

To take the process first, the organisational structure that was developed by OPTIS retained a small centralised project group of three staff, two Directors and an Administrator. This group then identified and contracted out, to national 'experts' in the field, the development of eight distance learning modules (some with audio cassette support) and four videos. The modules were on Instructor Skills, Developing Effective Learners, Trainee-centred Learning, Working with Young People, Assessment and Reviewing, Planning Training Programmes, Induction of Young Trainees and Guidance and Support. Each item, while contributing to the whole, was also to be free standing.

In the case of the modules, each contracted 'expert in the field' became the module coordinator, coordinating a 'writing cluster'. Each writing cluster consisted of a coordinator, a practitioner, writers, an instructor or supervisor and advisors. Each cluster was to produce the text for one module.

The organisation, administration and coordination of the clusters was focussed through the module coordinator. In addition, this was facilitated by regular module coordinator meetings, with the Directorate and evaluators, as well as efficient postal updating on all new developments. The care taken in the management of the participants involvment was an important part of the organisation of OPTIS and founded an effective collaborative and efficient system. A system which enabled the circulation of module drafts to all members for constructive yet critical internal analysis, analysis which further added to their eventual quality.

With regards to the product itself, the Directorate believed firmly that the production of a saleable module relied on the active involvement of the client group - the prospective users - in the material development.

Only through this involvement of the clients could the materials' suitability and acceptability be guaranteed. To ensure that this took place each module coordinator was contracted to undertake at least two client workshops during the development stage of the text. That was before the first draft was finalised. Through this approach three major presentational requirements were identified.

The first, as reported by the Project Director, was that "whatever we produced had to be instantly recognisable, entertaining and extremely flexible in its structure and potential mode of use. In short, if it looked remotely 'educational' it was probably 'done for'". (Webberley, 1985).

This led to a change in the main title of many of the modules, with more appropriate main headings being used. For example, 'Instructor Skills' became 'Putting it Across', and 'Learning to Learn' became 'Developing Effective Learners'. Also a style of presentation was adopted that enhanced readability and interest. Based on the informal research of Dr Webberley (one of the Directors) the adopted presentation formula - the Webberley formula - was that each page would comprise of 25% text, 25% white space and 50% graphics.

Secondly, it was found that the module objectives were required to be developed in the language of the potential users. This was in contrast to the perceived objectives and task ordering of the module coordinators. The latter was often rejected by the Supervisors as it did not relate to their own experience or way of thinking.

Thirdly, it became apparent that the text itself needed to be written and illustrated largely on anecdotes and examples provided by the potential users. These were subsequently noted and used.

Thus, in summary, both the product quality and the process efficiency were enhanced and enabled through, the Directorate, ensuring care in the management of the participation of all those involved at the module coordinator and client (grass-roots) levels.

II. THE EVALUATION OF THE PILOTING OF THE MODULES

The Research

The University of Surrey was asked to act as independent evaluators for the piloting phase of the project. Following negotiation, the evaluation team undertook to assess (1) the teaching/learning effectiveness of the modules (though it was recognised that this could be done in a very limited sense during piloting); (2) the acceptability and suitability of the modules, and their mode of use as perceived by the users and buyers; (3) a profile of the target group (very little information existed on the size and composition of instructors and supervisors across the country).

The Sample and Data Collection: National Pilot

The modules were piloted through the Staff Training Coordinators (STC) of nine MSC accredited centres, one from each region across the country. Each STC was asked to act as a focus to receive and distribute the OPTIS materials and to return the evaluation questionnaires. The modules were produced in a controlled sequence, with each centre receiving eleven copies of each module to pilot with Instructors and Supervisors on training programmes. In return, the centres would keep the materials free of charge, and be linked into the project and its subsequent marketing arrangements. In addition to the above sample, OPTIS circulated a limited number of modules and questionnaires to other groups and industries, such as British Rail. A report was to be written on the detailed analysis of two of the early modules.

The Buyer Sample: Managing Agents

In addition to the national piloting, two modules were piloted with a range of YTS Managing Agents - the major buyers. However, due to the wide variety of YTS Schemes in terms of mode, size and industry base, it was decided to obtain information from two selected areas - one rural and the other urban. YTS Managing Agents in Surrey, as rural and West Birmingham, as urban, proved suitable. Both these areas contained roughly the same number of Managing Agents, whilst the percentage of large-scale to small-scale schemes was reciprocal. In Surrey, 65% of schemes had 20 trainees or less, in comparison to 36% in the Birmingham area.

The Managing Agents in these two areas were contacted (by telephone) and asked if they would be prepared to read two modules and answer and return an enclosed questionnaire. A prepaid envelope would be provided. A total of 43% of the Surrey schemes and 33% of the total Birmingham schemes, agreed to participate, with 17% and 13% respectively returning questionnaires.

The Questionnaire

Each of the two sample groups - the users and the buyers - were surveyed by questionnaire. Each questionnaire containing 24 questions. Most of the questions required a YES/NO answer and there was space for comments. The user/supervisor questionnaire focussed on the following areas, supervisor characteristics; the materials' readability, presentation, effectiveness, modes of use and value as a support to staff training; opinions on the other module title areas; suggested title areas for future modules; problems with trainees and additional comments. The buyer/Managing Agent questionnaire focussed on the following areas, supervisor characteristics; organisation of staff development; supervisor management structures; perceived value of the materials as a support and their likely mode of use; opinion on the suggested title areas for the other modules; suggested title areas for further modules; opinions related to the video's usefulness and mode of use.

III CONCLUSIONS: THE FINDINGS

The results of the national pilot were largely conclusive. Both of the OPTIS modules evaluated in depth proved to be readable, acceptable, well presented and effective in the opinions of the YTS supervisors. Though constructive criticisms were made over a wide variety of aspects, roughly 90% of the respondents said that they would use materials of this sort if they were made available to them. In addition to this, a surprisingly high number of respondents to both modules stated that they would actually change their approach as a result of reading the module (65% in the case of Instructor Skills and 43% in the case of Working with Young People). It would seem from these results that this form of open learning is viewed by the users, the Instructors and Supervisors, as a useful and efficient way of improving and developing existing knowledge and skills.

As regards to the Managing Agents, due to the differences in the two areas chosen, the survey was difficult to summarise in terms of generalities. However, what did emerge across the board, was that the materials were considered to be a useful form of support to the YTS Supervisors. In addition roughly half of the respondents in each area were interested in buying such materials and almost all of them were interested in further information on the OPTIS videos. However, in contrast, while the majority of Surrey Managing Agents could identify specific monies available for staff development, less than a third in the Birmingham area could do likewise.

With regards to the perceived mode of use, the Supervisors and Instructors said that they would expect to use such materials both at home and at work. Over 70% also said that there would be time available at work to refer to them. The Managing Agents estimates of,time available at work, was however lower, with 65% of the Birmingham schemes and only 35% of the Surrey schemes agreeing.

The following table gives an outline of the basic characteristics of the Supervisors/Instructors as given by the Managing Agents.

Supervisor Characteristics

a. Age Range

Percentages (Approx).

	Surrey	Birmingham	TOTAL
25 years or under	8%	14%	11%
26 to 35 years	30%	39%	34%
36 to 45 years	31%	33%	32%
46 to 54 years	22%	8%	17%
over 55 years	8%	6%	7%

b. Qualification

	Surrey	Birmingham	TOTAL
Graduates	10%	18%	14%
Advanced Training	36%	29%	33%
General Job Training	54%	53%	54%

In conclusion, the grass-roots approach to the development of the OPTIS materials led to their high, general acceptance with the target group of Supervisors and Instructors. This was something that can be largely contributed to the care and attention taken by the Directors in the management of the participation of all those involved, at all levels, within the Project, a key consideration for future grass-roots initiatives.

The early successes of the project marketing and sales now back up the indications provided in the research. In support of the OPTIS potential, Oxfordshire County Council have now given an agreement to underwrite the project for its immediate future.

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Serving Adult High-Risk Students- A Study of Exemplary Practice

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ABSTRACT

In a qualitative study of four urban exemplary degree programs intended to serve adult high-risk students, the author describes innovative approaches in working with this population.

Introduction

Traditionally, urban, higher education institutions have enrolled a majority population of white, eighteen to twenty-two year old students whose academic record in their previous school experience was used as a predictor of success in college. The missions, educational programs, teaching and learning approaches and support service systems of these urban colleges were organized to successfully educate this traditional population.

Due to demographic changes, this traditional eighteen to twenty-two year old largely white group of students who comprised college populations has declined by 25 percent nationally and by 40 percent in New York state, and the shrinkage, it is predicted, will continue to the mid 1990's.

The urban colleges face both a decline in the eighteen to twenty-two year old college population and also in the adult population (who moved in masses from the cities to the suburbs) they had traditionally served.

Statement of the Problem

The demographic realities, social change and economic decline have posed a dilemma for higher education, and especially for urban colleges. Their programs were planned for a population which has declined markedly; namely, the 18 to 22 year old traditional college population. In their place is a substantially increased population of adults living in the inner-city, usually poor, undereducated, often minority or immigrant who in the democratic tradition of equality, need to be educated to their fullest potential.

To meet the challenge of educating this group will require changes in the philosophy, mission, curriculum, and administration of higher education. Higher education institutions in urban America have the facilities, the faculties, and the staffs to address the problem.

There is general agreement in the literature that in order to make the fundamental changes required, leaders in higher education will need to (1) understand the characteristics and needs of the new learners as they did in the beginning of the century for European immigrant populations, (2) analyze the significance of quality and equity in higher education for a democracy, (3) develop new administrative and instructional structures which meet the learning needs of the new population, and (4) articulate the philosophy and rationale for educating the new population to society and especially to business, political and community power groups(Lavin,Alba,Silberstein, 1979, and Murphy, 1983).

These are the challenges facing American colleges in urban areas. Higher education institutions in the United States have not in the past attempted to educate academically deficient adults and especially minorities. As they evolve workable strategies, they will need to deal with the question of academic standards in higher education. The question of how to achieve excellence while maintaining equality will be the central one in higher education for what remains of this century.

In order to meet the challenge of extending educational opportunity to present-day urban populations plagued with serious social problems and often characterized by severe academic deficiency, colleges will need knowledge and insight into their learning problems and into successful teaching strategies in a higher education setting. The specific problem facing urban colleges is the lack of research and information regarding what factors facilitate or impede progress for new college populations being referred to as adult high-risk learners.

Methodology

A qualitative research approach was employed in which the author (1) selected four model programs successfully serving the adult high-risk student, (2) identified and examined perceptions about factors which facilitate or impede learning for adult high-risk students through an in-depth study of the selected model programs. These perceptions of students and professionals regarding the factors which facilitate or impede learning for adult high-risk students are often not based upon proven learning theory but reflect opinions, feelings, attitudes, prejudices, customs, mores, experiences, problems and concerns of the "actors" in the field.

To elicit and describe these perceptions so that information and insights regarding teaching and learning for adult high-risk students can be made available to urban colleges requires a qualitative research approach. As indicated by Darkenwald(1980):

> It seems self-evident that little improvement can be expected without further systematic knowledge concerning what is acutually going on in adult education programs. If the subject matter of the field is the process of adult education, then the actual behavior of students, teachers, and administrators, and their experience are of central importance for developing theory and practice.

In order to "put together a complete picture of the social dynamic"(Patton,1980), of the four exemplary programs studied the author established 13 categories for comparison which were identified as critical areas in the literature.

For the field study and "elite" interview (Irish,1983) technique was used to elicit and examine subjective data from high-risk students, their teachers, counselors and administrators. A questionnaire called a Program Data Inventory (Irish,1983) provided objective data concerning enrollment statistics, ethnic composition, enrollment trends and patterns, kinds of financial aid services, support programs and information on program finances and budget.

Description of the Data

From an analysis of the information obtained in the interviews it was apparent that the community setting of the four colleges was a crucial factor in the evolution of their stated missions and the speed with which these missions were being implemented.

Interviewees from the two community colleges pointed out repeatedly that the community settings, with their heavy minority populations, were a constant pressure on college administrators to change their missions so that these undereducated, often volatile, groups could be educated and become economically independent. An analysis of the information from interviewees of the four year colleges indicates an absence of similar community pressures which seems to result in only minor accomodations to a small percentage of the adult high-risk populations surrounding these institutions.

As one administrator from the southern community college included in this study expressed it,

> The college mission is to serve all students who come here; most of our students have academic deficiencies. We are totally committed to this mission. There are no other institutions which can serve them - help them pick-up skills and improve their lives and be future leaders of this country. This is a non-negotiable goal.

Almost all of the administrators, faculty and counselors interviewed identified the characteristic behavior of unrealistic goals of high-risk students as the most serious problem confronting colleges. As one administrator expressed it,

> They come with unrealistic expectations of what a college education is, and the kind of commitment necessary to complete one.

Interviewees also pointed out that high-risk students are usually not aware of the differences in educational preparation which exist between them and their mainstream counterparts. However, as one administrator asserted and others confirmed,

> There is neglect in prior education. Many did not have the goal of going to college when they were in high school. Many of the academic courses that they should have taken and done well in were not their major interest. They didn't expand their literacy skills. This may be an important reason for their not doing well in college; it wasn't their goal to go to college.

She added further,

> They are more often than not discouraged from even considering going to college by their high school counselors. Many minority students are steered away from going to college with suggestions from counselors like," Why don't you learn typing?; Why don't you go to beauty school or be a nurses' aide?" - anything other than professional or going to college.

One message that colleges are giving to high-risk students is that they must invest the time necessary to improve their basic skills, and the institutions are trying to develop programs which skeptical students come to value. Two students who wanted to enroll in computer courses in the southern community college but who were directed to basic skill remediation commented,

> They told me my math and reading levels were not good enough to go in the computer class. They put me in math and reading for which I am happy because it helps me.

> I was a beauty operator for 20 years and now-a file clerk. I want to learn computers. Because the college insisted, I took reading. Now I am taking writing. It is very interesting. They give you a lot of topics to express yourself about things.

From an examination and analysis of the data from interviewees at all four colleges studied it was evident that all interviewees (except students) had a positive attitude toward their high-risk students. Except for one administrator who represented the inner-city,all black college there was no evidence of attempts to identify the strengths, assests, life experience and learning styles of these students in order to build upon them. Since general research on learning emphasizes the importance of teacher expectation on the capacity of the student for learning, careful examination of practices which might emphasize weaknesses and liabilities and ignore strengths and assests is critical.

The four colleges studied essentially maintained "open admissions" policies and were responding each in its own way, to the challenge of educating the new urban population. The extent and modes of response were affected by the particular location, setting and history of the college, by outside political forces, by attitudes of faculty, staff, and by budget allocations.

Although open access higher education has been viewed with considerable skepticism by many writers,it was apparent from the data that commitment of educational leaders to open enrollment policies results in improved academic achievement for adult high-risk students.

One of the top level administrators at the southern community college made a profound statement of what should be the mission of higher education in the United States. It was as follows:

> We stand for a particular vision of American higher education. It's extremely important for us to articulate that vision to anyone who will listen and to tell society what it is doing. I don't believe that most people realize the impact of these decisions. They don't realize that we are wiping out a generation of minority leadership in this country. They don't realize the impact of disenfranchising large numbers of people from the first two or four years of college.
>
> It's painfully obvious to me that this country desperately needs more well-educated people. Check the classified advertisements in any newspaper. There are pages of jobes and at the same time scores of unemployed, because they don't have the academic background and skills.

Conclusions and Recommendations

Higher education administrators,in urban college, who are actively working to extend educational opportunity to adult high-risk students are reporting that new administrative and programmatic approaches are necessary to enable the new population to enter college and to fulfill the academic requirements of degree programs.

Having assumed the responsibility for educating the new college population, college faculties will need to understand the new students - their backgrounds, their strengths, their learning styles and problems. In the literature, researchers and writers emphasized the importance of understanding these characteristics of adult high risk students as a basis for successful teaching of this group.

From the data collected in interviews, it was learned that faculties who examined their perceptions of the adult high-risk population in faculty development workshops were apparently more successful in meeting the learning needs of their students.

The characteristic behavior of setting unrealistic educational goals was identified by the colleges studied as the most serious problem of the adult high-risk population. Colleges which work with these students will need to understand that they set these goals on the basis of the information and experience available to them in their home and community setting. They are mostly first generation college students, so they have not had a chance to learn about college from parents or peers.

Faculty and administrators interviewed at the community colleges included in this study agreed that urban colleges which want to accept the challenge of educating the adult high-risk learner will need to recruit in the inner city areas and will need to use a direct, personalized, verbal approach. The message given will need to communicate their genuine interest in educating the high-risk learner. It is important to communicate the capacity of the college to help potential students with skill deficiencies, financial problems and other support needs necessary for them to succeed in college.

Colleges which accept the challenge of educating the adult high-risk student need to fight against the curtailment of open enrollment policies. They also must develop admissions processes which provide the necessary support for poor, undereducated, often minority, inner-city populations.

According to the faculties in all four colleges included in this study, educating the underprepared learner in college requires a massive, coordinated effort among all types of professionals and is accomplished through a multitude of formal and informal administrative structures. As these faculties advised, colleges which also wish to organize successful programs for high-risk students will need to develop faculties and staffs who will work as a team-and who will feel responsible for knowing how to help these students or where to get appropriate help for them.

In general, from the findings, it is recommended that remedial programs not be seperate entities but that they be integrated with academic courses and related, whereever possible, to students' occupational and personal goals. Planning this kind of remedial program requires close articulation between the remedial and mainstream faculty.

Faculties of the colleges included in this study recommend strongly that educators in urban colleges become actively involved in budget decisions at the state and national levels. Adult high-risk learners need educational leaders to lobby for them, or in this time of economic scarcity and political conservatism,they as a relatively powerless constituency, may well remain undereducated and powerless. Educational leaders who understand the far-reaching social consequences to our society of the disenfranchisement of a generation of urban, mostly minority residents, must make their voices heard in political circles.

For every culture, the life of its cities is important to its survival and to its economic well-being. Major cities exemplified by the two urban areas included in this study — New York City and Miami, Fla. are populated with large groups(60 to 80 percent of the total urban population) of undereducated, underemployed, often minority adults living with their families in intoerable conditions; and in close geographic proximity, small groups (20 to 40 percent of highly educated, affluent whites. In addition, there are literally thousands of people who live in the suburbs in upper and middle-income areas and work in the city, while inner-city residents remain unemployed or in entry level, "dead end," often service-type jobs.

During the civil rights movement of the 60's,these kinds of conditions caused cities to explode with violence. The government responded with civil rights legislation that extended employment and educational opportunity to significant numbers of inner-city residents, and especially blacks.

Many of these working adults for the first time saw a chance to improve their job status and the quality of their lives through education and significant numbers enrolled in college.

Now, in the 80's, a climate of political conservatism has led to a regression in civil rights and once again threatens equal educational opportunity.

Urban colleges have a social responsibility to provide equal educational opportunity for these potential students and to develop programs and practices which enable these adult high-risk student populations to succeed in college. These colleges need to recognize that their economic stability is related directly to their capacity to serve these inner-city populations, since they are the market of the future. As expressed by one of the administrators in the southern community college included in this study:

> To help the urban depressed populations become educated- help them pick up skills and improve their lives and be future leaders of this country - must be a non-negotiable goal.

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DETERRENTS TO PARTICIPATION IN ADULT BASIC EDUCATION

By

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Abstract

The purpose of this study was to identify the factors that deter low-literate adults from participating in adult basic education. An instrument was developed and administered to 160 ABE students. Five oblique factors were identified through principal components analysis. These factors differ substantially from factors identified in prior research as deterrents for other groups in the adult population.

PROBLEM STATEMENT

The purpose of this study was to partially replicate and extend the research on deterrents to participation in organized adult education initiated by Scanlan and Darkenwald (1984) (on deterrents to participation in health-related continuing professional education) and Darkenwald and Valentine (1985) (on deterrents for the general public). The results of the previous research indicated that the deterrents construct is multidimensional, with a factor structure that varies for different subgroups of the adult population. The objectives of the present study were to construct a new form of the Deterrents to Participation Scale (DPS-LL) to measure deterrents among the low-literate population and to identify the factors which deter low-literate adults from participation in adult basic education. Low-literate adults were defined as persons not enrolled in full-time study, age 16 or older, reading at or below the sixth grade level.

METHODOLOGY

Instrumentation

The first step in the development of the Deterrents to Participation Scale-Form LL (DPS-LL) was the gathering of information on deterrents through individual and group interviews with low-literate ABE students, ABE teachers, and teachers' aides. A preliminary version of the DPS-LL was constructed from a list of deterrents identified through the interviews, the DPS-G instrument (Darkenwald & Valentine, 1985), and an extensive literature search. Item clarity was assessed by seeking feedback from 29 ABE students who completed the initial instrument. In addition, the administrators of the preliminary version provided information about the appropriateness of the scale directions and format. The pilot instrument was refined by revising and/or deleting redundant or low variance items based on the results of standard item analysis procedures. The wording of a number of other items was simplified. The directions were also modified, and the Likert-type item scale was reduced from 4 points to 3 points. The final form of the DPS-LL has 32 items. The alpha reliability coefficient for the final form was .82. The content validity of the scale is demonstrated by the procedures used in its development.

The DPS-LL directions begin by explaining that many adults do not attend classes even if they need to improve their basic skills or earn a high school credential. Because respondents were currently enrolled in ABE classes, they were instructed to think back to when they were not going to the ABE class. Then they were told to "look at the reasons below, and decide how true each one was for you before you started this adult education class." A sample item is given below:

REASONS	HOW TRUE WAS EACH REASON FOR YOU BEFORE YOU STARTED THIS CLASS?		
	Not True	Somewhat True	True
1. I couldn't pay for childcare or transportation	1	2	3

Sampling and Data Collection

For the purpose of the study, it was necessary to use a sample of adults whose reading levels had been measured. Given the near impossibility of identifying such a population among the general public, a sample was drawn from adults currently participating in ABE classes. The use of such a sample prevents the generalization of results to the entire low-literate population; however, the results are valuable in identifying deterrents which are critical for adults who are the most immediate potential participants in ABE. To ensure uniformity in administration and to enable all respondents to understand the written items, all directions and items were read aloud by the instrument administrator. The respondents sealed their questionnaires in an unmarked envelope to promote candid responses.

A total of 160 ABE students completed the scale. Sociodemographic information, collected along with the DPS-LL data, yielded the following descriptive figures: A majority of the sample (68%) were female; 51% were age 26 or younger; 60% were unemployed; 65% were black, 22% Hispanic, and 8% white. Although the respondents were all reading at or below a sixth grade level, 52% had completed the ninth grade in school.

Data Analysis

Exploratory factor analysis was used to analyze the data. Principal components analysis was used to extract the initial factors. Both orthogonal (Varimax) and oblique rotations were used to obtain factor solutions. Factor scores were computed for each case and used in correlational analyses to determine the relationships between the respondent sociodemographic data and the factors.

DESCRIPTION OF DATA: FINDINGS

Factor Analysis

The initial analysis yielded eleven factors which met the Kaiser criterion for retention (an eigenvalue of 1.0 or greater). To obtain a simpler structure, 4 factor, 5 factor, and 6 factor solutions were computed with both Varimax and Oblimin procedures. Based on the rotated factor matrices, the 5 factor oblique solution was selected as the most conceptually meaningful. Only four items failed to load on any factor. Seven items loaded on more than one factor. However, in an oblique solution, the factors are correlated and therefore such an overlap among loadings would be expected. The overall mean importance score for the scale was 1.44. Low item means were also characteristic of the original DPS and the DPS-G.

Interpretation of Factors

Factor 1: Low Self-Confidence. The variables loading on this factor involved feelings of low self-esteem and doubts about personal ability to succeed academically. The items reflected a fear of the tasks required in the process of education. A number of the variables had relatively high item means, suggesting that this factor might be an important deterrent for this population.

Factor 2: Social Disapproval. The highest loading or "marker" variables for this factor shared discouragement from significant others as their theme. The remaining items consisted of statements that reflect a social environment in which education is not perceived as important or helpful.

Factor 3: Negative Attitude to Classes. The variables loading on this factor all indicate a dislike of some aspect of adult education classes, including the other students, classes themselves, going to a school building, and schoolwork in general.

Factor 4: Low Personal Priority. This factor's interpretation is based on two marker variables, "It was more important to get a job than to go to school," and "I didn't have time to go to school," which clearly relate to a situation in which other activities are more important than education. The other items, the majority of which loaded more highly on other factors, may be interpreted as indicators of education's low status as a personal priority.

Factor 5: Situational Barriers. Most of the items loading on this factor related to barriers of a "situational" nature including costs, transportation, and family problems.

Relation of Factors to Sociodemographic Variables

When standardized factor scores were correlated with sociodemographic variables, a number of correlations were found to be significant. Factor 1, Low Self-Confidence, correlated positively with age and negatively with educational attainment. Factor 3, Negative Attitude to Classes, correlated negatively with age. Factor 4, Low Personal Priority, also correlated negatively with age, which is not surprising, since most young adults tend to be more concerned with working and raising young children. Factor 5, Situational Barriers, correlated positively with being female, unemployed, and having young children. Only one factor, Social Disapproval, did not correlate significantly with any sociodemographic variable. The pattern of correlations is what would be anticipated, and thus provides support for the construct validity of the DPS-LL.

CONCLUSIONS

Previous research had indicated that a different factor structure for the deterrents construct exists for different subgroups of the adult population, and the results of this study support that conclusion. The five factors identified here differ from the factors found in the previous studies using the DPS and the DPS-G. Only two factors, Low Self-Confidence and Low Personal Priority, were also found in the research with the DPS-G. None of the factors identified with the original DPS were replicated in this study.

Past research on barriers for the ABE population has been limited and based more on speculation than empirical evidence. In addition, prior studies have tended to use existing models of deterrents factors, rather than factor analytic methods to confirm or reject those models. The results of this study contribute to general knowledge about the structure of the deterrents construct, as well as providing specific information about deterrents for low-literate adults. The next step for research in this area is to identify the factor structure of deterrents for additional subgroups of the adult population.

The results will be useful to practitioners in several ways. ABE teachers and administrators can use the DPS-LL to identify the major barriers for the target population in their service area. Information from further analyses will enable programs to focus efforts on mitigating or eliminating barriers for selected groups of potential participants.

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Adult Education and Government Repression in the U.S., 1919-1920

Revolutionary Radicalism, an eight volume, 4500 page report(1920) of the activities of the little known Lusk Committee, provides new perspectives into the importance of historical research to adult education in the United States.

In the spring and early summer of 1919, eleven members of the New York State Legislature convened in New York City to investigate "the purposes and objects, tactics and methods, of the various forces now at work in the United States, and particularly in the state of New York, which are seeking to undermined and destroy, not only the government under which we live, but also the structure of American society." (Proceedings, p. 7) This ad hoc group of legislators, to be known as the Lusk Committee after it tenacious chairman, Clayton R. Lusk, a lawyer from Cortland, N.Y., had organized itself in a period of extreme national hysteria, and as the the investigation unfold, it became apparent that adult educators were a major focus, indeed a target, of the committee's activities.

Three events or series of events stand out as the dialectical catalysts that created the social milieu in which the Committee found itself.

First, the Great War had created in America a jingoist spirit which brought with it a neurotic need for its citizens to compete for the title of "who is most loyal." This was not particularly unusual, since throughout their history, Americans had always found themselves caught up in the fervor of nationalism whenever the country had become involved in an armed conflict. In fact, in 1898 the intensity of this curious national passion had probably contributed more to starting the Spanish-American War than any combination of political and economic factors. Theodore Rosevelt no doubt expressed well the feelings of most citizens when he observed that President McKinley's "little adventure" "was not a very good war, but it was the best we could get." Of course, America eventually became involved in what was to be known as World War I, and the fact that it was fought as "the war to end all war" not only justified the struggle for most Americans but also seem to made it necessary.

Secondly, the 1917 Russian Revolution had frightened many people, especially the ruling social, political, and economic elite in western capitalist countries. The fact that socialist movements had gained some ground and enjoyed varying degrees of success in virtually all these countries during the thirty odd years immediately preceding the Soviet upheaval played no small part in the status quo's belief that their hegemony* was also on

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*Although this term has been used extensively to mean simply political control, it has enjoyed a far wider meaning due to the writings of the Italian Marxist, Antonio Gramsci (1891-1937).By hegemony Gramsci meant the permeation throughout society's whole range of structures and activities (including schools, the churches, labor unions, the family, etc.) an entire system of values, attitudes, beliefs, morality, etc. that is in one way or

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the wane. Consequently, the credo of the ruling elite in America--"if it happened in Russia, it could happened here"-- may not have been entirely an idle observation. Of course, the frequent argument that essential differences in the political, economic and other historical conditions existed between the two countries and thus would assure a gradual process for social reconstruction in the United States, carried little weight with powerful, conservative elements. There position was uncompromising and clear: If you've seen one Bolshevik, you've seen them all."

Thirdly, and closely related to the second phenomenon, it was no secret, that during the 55 odd years following the Civil War, a number and variety of non-traditional adult education programs had challenged, with varying degrees of success, the supposed egalitarian nature of American society. In fact, a few reforms had resulted as legislators succumbed to the political interest groups which were the outgrowth of these educational movements. More importantly, America's consciousness was changing. Reform was in the air and adult educators were leading the way. These progressive-minded men and women may have promoted assorted theories and doctrines, but the mosaic produced was social change. Moreover, many felt that education for social change could and should occur outside formal institutions or "schools." Their counter-hegemonic educational activities anticipated a definitive description of adult education which Lyman Bryson endorsed years later. "Adult education," wrote Bryson in 1936, should be considered as "all activities with an educational purpose that are carried on by people engaged in the ordinary business of life"(Quoted in Gratton, p. 3). Samuel Gompers, a conservative labor leader and long tenured president of the "elitist" American Federation of Labor, once observed that "one could get the best education on the picket line." No doubt, many labor educators, who for years had struggled to make workers aware of their oppressive position in a suppressive system, could easily identify with Gomper's remark. But it is not surprising that after toiling for years in the labor movement Gompers would lament that his earlier views on education had been too limited. He noted in his autobiography that "since traditionally and even now the mass of information obtained upon the labor question is from those whose interests and politics are divergent from those of labor it is for this and other reasons, I have said that if the income of the AF of L were ten times what it is or may have been at its highest peak, I would spend ever dollar of it in publishing, printing, and education, and for the men and women to carry the gospel of the fundamental justice of the labor movement for a better life for all"(Gompers, p. 443-444).

Daniel DeLeon, the radical labor leader and socialist, may have expressed the position of many who were dedicated to education for change when he insisted that "an educated person must give the worker the full benefit of his education, because their ignorance was due to no fault of their own, but poverty"(Quoted in Schlossberg, p. 87). Indeed, for years those

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another supportative of the established order, the class interest that dominate it, and is so entrenched in the consciousness and unconsciousness that it is assumed to be "common sense."

sympathetic to the socialist cause had tour the country disseminating literature, lecturing, organizing interest groups, unionizing workers, and campaigning for state and local office seekers. By 1912, it was becoming apparent that their educational efforts were having some impact. In the summer of that year, Robert Hoxie, a political researcher, compiled data which showed that over 2000 socialist held public office in the America, most of them in municipal and state adminiistations. The national party numbered 119,000 paying members. Eugene V. Debs, the party's presidential candidate in 1912, polled 897,000 votes, about 6% of the popular vote. Clayton Lusk pointed to the dangers of these movements in his opening comments when the committee convened on June 12, 1919: "The most important questions of the day are socialism and labor. The men who are leading in both fields of thought and action are quite aware of their international character. The American public is not. It must be educated to see that every big movement on its other side has its parallel in the United States, and that they are closely interlocked and so governed by the same group of men that we cannot ignore the European situation. Otherwise our people cannot understand the centralized strategy behind the action. It cannot realize the tremendous forces at work nor the crisis present and impending"(Proceedings, p. 39).

The committee assumed "anti-Americanism" with every challenge to the status quo. Thus, it made little difference if the men and women involved in counter-hegemonic education were called leftists, unionists, pacifists, muckrakers, socialists, or radicals. They were all lumped together as subversives. All, no matter what the label, were somehow dedicated to the "growth of the radical revoluntionary movement due largely to the effect of propaganda"(Proceedings, p. 7). However, what the Committee considered to be propaganda , others viewed as education, and vice versa, a position that recently has been developed even further by "radical" sociologists. " Propaganda," as the Lusk Committee defined it, referred to "the methods employed to form, influence, guide and direct public opinion, with a view to controlling public sympathy and action." Moreover, there were two types of propaganda--propaganda by "the word" and by "the deed." "Propaganda by the use of words, that is to say, through the employment of written and spoken argument," was as dangerous as "propaganda by deed, namely some sort of action, either individual or organized, calulated to affect public sympathy or conduct"(Proceedings, p. 2292). One wonders why these remarks never occurred to the committee members as representative of their attempts to control the contents of adult education and of the deeds associated with the numerous arrests and jailing of adult educators, both of which was directed and promoted by them to "form, influence, guide, and direct public opinion." The hypocrisy was further manifested in the comments of one investigator who praised the efforts of "public school authorities with the cooperation of the legislatures of almost every state in the United States to Americanization and citizenship training as vital and integral part of the school curricula as the universal teaching of the justly famed three r's." It was essential, he continued, that "we give children in their early youth and the newer adults a real and sympathetic appeciation of American ideals and a respect for the institutions through which these ideals find realization, so their patriotism will be deep-rooted and lasting and their loyalty to this nation so strong that it will withstand the influences of subversive propaganda"(Proceedings, p. 1143).

The Lusk Committee was epecially concerned with Americanization programs. The fear of foreigners and their "imported radical ideas" often dominated the committee member's dialogue particularly in regards to the "inadequacy of programs and teachers." Concern was also expressed about the fact that nearly 60,000 adult immigrants were registered in Americanization classes in the State of New York alone, and although this figure comprised only about 2% of the total population, it "far exceed(ed) the attendance of the native adult population." Furthermore, the Committee warned that although "the term Americanization when *properly employed* is expressive of the process which the foreigner undergoes in orientating himself to American ideals and traditions, as well as to customs and manners of the country, unfortunately, the word has been applied by some social worker to describe their activities, which have a tendency to retard rather than advance the process of Americanization"(Prceedings, p. 2294).

To correct these iregularities, intensive teachers' training programs were proposed since "the necessity for training teachers in the field of immigration and adult education to counteract revolutionary and un-American ideas, is almost wholly ignored (and) this is a fundamental weakness in all of the organized plans which has come to the committee's attention"(Proceedings, p. 2297-98). Justifying these teachers' training sounded strangely similar to what another educational "investigator," Joseph Gooebels, might have said a few years later: "The public school teacher is a representative and officer of the state as it now exists. He is employed by that state to teach loyalty to its institutions and obedience to its laws. He is not employed to explore the controversial fields of political economy with the view of championing utopian schemes for reform or change"(Proceedings, p. 2299)!!

Also recommended was "intensive instuction of the same kind in vocational and shop clases," since it would "increase the loyalty of the workers to their employers." One investigator proudly related an incident concerning a strike in Connecticutt in which, of the 53% of the workers who walked-out, only 3% were workers who were attending or had attended Americanization classes. The reason for this,he argued, lay in the fact that those workers who attended the Americanization classes were "able to speak English (and) could talk to the foreman, and problems could be grasped." In addition, he noted, that "when an employee believes that his advancement in the shop is somehow connected with his advancement in his class (which sounds suspiciously like blackmail), he takes his job more seriously"(2292-93).

The attacks on the Americanization programs were closely related to assaults by the committee upon settlement houses and churches where many Americanization classes met. Jane Addams, who has come to personify the settlement house in America, was accused by the Committee on several occasions for taking an active part in radical, pacifist, and other un-American movements (Proceedings, pp. 971, 972, 975, 976, 979, 980- 81, 992-94, 999, 1000, 1019, 1083, 1978, 1989). The Committee was certain that many settlement people "had followed Miss Addams example," for "in many of the neighborhood houses radical and revolutionary ideas are taught and hospitably received"(Proceedings, p. 2212). One association, The United Neighborhood Houses of New York, was particularly offended by the Committee's attempt to control the content of education and the dissemination of knowledge. In a letter to Lusk, the president of the association protested that the "houses would lose value if it presented Americanization from just one viewpoint (since) both sides should be given an equal hearing (because) truth cannot suffer in the long run from contact with fallacy." Moreover, he declared, the "United Neighborhood Houses in principal opposes the repression of ideas except where change, economic or political, by force is advocated, pernicious principals no less worthy ones thrive on repression. The latter alone can survive free discussion." After the letter was read, one of the Committee members was curious as to whether the letter-writer "would bring an advocate of prostitution into a forum and let everyone consider the question (or) if he would give the impression that the question was debatable"(Proceedings, pp. 2314-15). The Committee also condemned "the custom and conduct in many settlement houses to invite radical and revolutionary speakers (and again it must be emphasised that these terms were never defined) to occupy their platform for the reason that the audience is in many cases already predisposed towards radical ideas and the effect of the radical or revolutionary speeches can be none other than to crystalize or confirm the radical beliefs of the hearers"(Proceedings, pp. 2316-2317). No evidence was provided to support these allegations.

The Lusk Committee attacked the adult education activities of clerymen (representing literally ever denomination) who had distributed pacifist literature even before America's entry into the war and who, in some cases, had expressed that their sympathies lay with one of the socialist causes. Much testimony was received regarding peace education movements which had occurred in the numerous small, insignificant communities which dotted the mid-western and western states(Proceedings, pp. 1135-38). These activities, according to the committee, represented "an International sentiment to supercede national patriotism and effort, and this internationalism was based on pacifism, in the sense that it opposed all wars between nations and developed at the same time the class consciousness that was to culminate in relentless class warfare. In other words, it was not really peace that was the goal, but the abolition of the patriotic, warlike spirit of nationalities"(Proceedings, p. 11)!!

The committee's concern regarding "the socialist elements in the clergy" represented the kind of illogical reasoning which either revealed the intellectual capacity of the investigators, the hysteria which gripped the times, or both. One member soberly explained that "there is a ever growing tendancy towards radicalism in the clergy (and) much emphasis (must be) given to the fact that the clergy is underpaid and for this reason they are unable to see the economic problems in their proper perspective"(Proceedings, p. 2317)!! It was true that several churchmen had risen to prominent positions in the socialist movement. However, many of them came to socialism for the same reasons that one prolific writer on the subject of workers' education and a well known Boston Episcopalian minister, William Bliss, did. (Bliss was also one of the original founders of the first Nationalist Club, a Junto-like adult discussion group which revolved around the concept of "The Collective Commonwealth," as developed in Edward Bellamy's best seller, Looking Backward. Hundreds of these clubs were organized in the United States between 1889 and 1895.) Bliss admitted that he had joined the movement as a means "to unite reformers to socialism by making it broad enough, free enough, practical enough to include all that is of value, no matter whence it comes, and replace jealousy between reformers by cooperation for the general good (since) a narrow petty jealous socialism can never and ought never to win the country"(Proceedings, p. 1130). It should be noted that this was the same Bliss who had once referred to William Jennings Byran, the three-time Democratic candidate for the presidency, as a "true socialist," a thought that would have greatly disturbed the conservative Byran(Quoted in Quint, p. 247).

Nor was Chautauqua, the hallmark of Americam "liberal" education, safe from the committee's attacks. Included in their report were exerpts from a speech by Walter Raushenbusch "an educational expert," ex- banker, former secretary of the treasury, and professor of history at the Rochester Theological Seminary. Raushenbusch was not only certain that Chautauqua was "full of socialism," but he concluded that he did "not recall a Chautauqua speaker who is not talking and teaching Socialist doctrine"(Proceedings, p. 1112). This would have no doubt shocked former Chautauqua speakers like U.S. Grant, Teddy Roosevelt and William Rainey Harper. This is but one of many examples of how the committee manufactured "experts" to promote their position.

The Lusk Committe was directly responsible for the arrest of thousands of adult educators. Scores were imprisoned and hundreds were deported. (For a precise breakdown of arrests, prison sentences, and deportations see, Proceedings, pp. 23-28, Chamberlain, pp. 9-52, Levin, pp. 68-70, and Burlingame, pp.31-33). How many lives were ruined is impossible to estimate. The report which provides a detailed account of the Lusk Committee's day-to-day business appears, at first glace, to be an exhaustive and scholarly inquiry. Upon closer examination, however, one discovers that bulk can easily be mistaken for substance.What emerges is a story of distorted class perceptions, attempts to arbitrarily differentiate "good" from "bad" education, and persecution and harassment of the adult education community throughout the country.

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Adult Learning Styles: Auditory, Visual, and Tactual-Kinesthetic Sensory Modalities

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Abstract

An experimental study of adult volunteers who engaged in twelve novel learning activities. Results indicate adults possess four distinct dominant learning style modalities, including tactual-kinesthetic.

Problem of the Study

Do adults learn more effectively through dominant sensory modalities? Studies by Bruner and others (Bruner, Olver, & Greenfield, 1967) established that an individual's reliance on a sensory modality for understanding experience and organizing information progresses from kinesthetic (psychomotor) in childhood to the visual (spatial or figure), and, in adulthood, to the auditory or verbal mode (symbolic). Yet, educational learning style researchers, such as French (1975), Canfield (1977), Dunn and Dunn (1979), and Hill (1981), have claimed that adults do retain a preference for, or a reliance on, different sensory modalities while learning. This claim is based primarily on research with children and adolescents and/or on information acquired from self-report instruments and observation of both youth and adults. There is no conclusive evidence which supports the assertion that adults retain a dominant sensory learning modality. The experimental verification that adults do retain a dominant learning modality would enable adult educators to adapt instructional methods and materials to promote more successful and efficient learning for adult learners.

Purpose of the Study

The sensory modalities selected for investigation in the study were those common to the learning style constructs of French, Canfield, Dunn and Dunn, and Hill: auditory (listening); visual (reading print, diagrams, pictures); tactile, tactual, or haptic (touch); and kinesthetic (motor, movement, direct experience). The tactual and kinesthetic modalities were combined to represent touch and hand movement. Learning style was defined to mean an individual's characteristic manner of acquiring cognitive knowledge regardless of subject matter. Dominant sensory modality referred to the modality by which an individual acquires cognitive knowledge most effectively.

The primary research question for the study became: Do adults learn more effectively in the auditory, visual, or tactual-kinesthetic modality across or within subject matter?

For the purpose of the study, the tactual-kinesthetic modality was divided into two subcategories, "auditahm" and "visitahm". "Auditahm" refers to touch and hand movement combined with the auditory sense, while "visitahm" refers to touch and hand movement combined with the visual sense.

A secondary research question addressed demographic and descriptive characteristics: Is there a relationship between a dominant sensory modality and age, sex, level of achievement, years of formal education, preferred modality of learning, or self-reported most effective modality of learning?

Two major assumptions were made. First, it is possible to differentiate adult's sensory modalities and to measure the learning which occurs through each sensory modality. Second, the fact that the study was conducted at different times and in different locations did not affect the measurement of the subjects' learning.

Methodology

The research was designed as a repeated measures experimental study with adult volunteers engaging in twelve learning activities divided equally into four learning modes: auditory, visual, auditahm, and visitahm. Each subject acted as his/her own control.

Subjects

Sixty-three volunteers, 35 women and 28 men, ages 25 to 74, participated in the study. The subjects had completed high school, college, or advanced degree programs. Their occupational backgrounds represented a broad range of professions. Various means were used to invite the volunteers to participate in the study, including newspaper advertisements, presentations to adult groups, and personal invitations by the researcher and the researcher's colleagues.

Instruments

Learning Activities

The researcher designed twelve novel learning activities according to the following criteria: 1) use meaningful or interesting materials at an eighth or ninth grade reading and vocabulary level; 2) avoid materials developed for psychomotor learning; 3) keep activities short and do not repeat content; 4) develop materials which require only simple arithmetic skills; 5) develop materials which resemble magazine articles rather than textbooks; and 6) avoid cues in the materials which would alert subjects to specific test items.

Three activites were developed for each of the four sensory learning modes. Each of the three activities presented different subject areas. One activity presented English or language symbols and language structure. The second activity presented numbers, number symbols, and mathematical relationships. The third activity presented scientific principles, terms, and relationsips. The activites contained ideas familiar to adults, but focused on facts few adults were likely to know. The organization and titles of the learning activities are presented in the following chart.

Learning Activities

	Auditory	Visual	Auditahm	Visitahm
English	Morse Code	Indian Sign Language	Blissymbolics	Flags at Sea
Mathematics	Conversions of Measures	Fibonacci Numbers	Rules of Chance	Cuisenaire Rods
Science	Silent Sound	Optical Illustions	Simple Machines	Ohm's Law

The auditory activities consisted of ten-minute audio tapes. The visual activities consisted of eight to twelve page reading packets with print diagrams, and pictures. The auditahm activities consisted of ten to fifteen-minute audio tapes which directed the subjects to manipulate three-dimensional models which illustrated the concepts presented by the tapes. The visitahm activites consisted of packets of 18 to 32 reading cards. As the cards were read in sequence, subjects received directions to manipulate three-dimensional models and descriptions of the concept being illustrated by the use of the models.

During the pilot testing, materials were revised until a reasonable working time and clarity of presentation were achieved for each activity. Four educational experts verified the construct validity of each activity as addressing different sensory modalities.

Tests

The test for each activity consisted of twelve questions. Four of the questions measured recall, four measured rule or concept learning, and four measured problem-solving, as defined by Gagne (Gagne, 1974). The test items were weighted for scoring with two points for a correct answer, zero for a wrong answer, and one for a correct, but incomplete answer. Partial credit was given for rule and problem-solving items only. To equate the difficulty level of the tests, the rawscores for each test were converted to z-scores.

During the pilot testing, over 100 volunteers took one or more activity and test. Revisions were made until clarity of presentation was achieved and the difficulty level of each item (proportion of right to wrong answers) ranged from .2 to .9. The content and logical validity of each test was verified by an educational expert.

After the study was completed, Cronbach's alpha was used to establish the reliability of each test. The alphas ranged from .77 to .91. The average test reliability was .84. Pearson's r was used to find the correlations between item scores and total test scores. The r's ranged from .26 to .85, with the majority of correlations between .4 and .7. Since all the correlations were positive, there were no negative discriminators in the test items.

Demographic Instrument

The researcher designed a simple questionnaire to collect the following demographic and descriptive data: age, sex, years of formal education completed, self-reported English, mathematics, and science levels of achievement, and preferred and self-reported most effective modality of learning--one of four categories which were preferences for learning by listening, reading, using hand's-on materials, or combinations of preferences.

The researcher also designed a Final Evaluation Form to verify each subject's lack of prior knowledge of the answer to any of the test items.

Treatment

Subjects participated in the study in individual or group settings during the period from September, 1984, through January, 1986. The activities were given in several locations, including homes, fire stations, and an adult learning center. The order of the activities was varied so that each activity appeared about the same number of times in the sequence of twelve activities. No more than seven activities were completed at one time. The subjects proceeded at their own pace during the reading and visitahm activities. The audio tapes controlled the time spent on auditory and auditahm activities, but the subjects were allowed to replay a portion of the tape if they were distracted while listening or the tape was too fast. The subjects were allowed to smoke, drink, or eat while taking the activities and tests. Each subject was provided with a set of stereo headphones and a tape recorder during the learning sessions.

Before beginning the first activity, each subject received a preparation sheet which presented the purpose of the study and listed a set of instructions for the learning sessions. The instructions included a caution not to discuss the content of the activities or any test questions with other subjects until everyone had finished all the activities. After completing the preparation sheet, the subjects filled out a learning screen, which asked them to report their knowledge for each of the twelve topics. If a subject knew the content of one of the learning activities, he/she was excluded from the study. The subjects then filled out the questionnaire and began the first activity. After each activity was finished, the materials were removed and the test was handed to the subject.

After all the activities were completed, the final evaluation form was filled out, and the researcher verbally verified that the subjects had no prior knowledge of the content of any test item, or, if they did, that they had noted their knowledge about the item on the answer sheet for the test.

Analysis of Data

To identify each subject's dominant sensory modality, the z-scores for the three tests in each of the four learning modes were summed, and a total z-score per mode was found. The largest z-score determined which mode was dominant. By this process, the subjects were divided into the following groups: 16 auditory, 16 visual, 16 auditahm, and 15 visitahm.

An analysis of variance for repeated measures was used to investigate the interaction effects between the subjects' dominant modality and the means of the converted test scores (z-scores) for each of the four activity modes in each subject area.

Scheffe's F-test was used for post-hoc analysis for each subject area to determine if the difference between the group mean of the dominant mode category was statistically significant when compared with the combined means of the tests in the non-dominant modes. Statistical significance for the Scheefe F-test was set at $p<.1$ because the Scheefe test is the least likely of the post-hoc analysis tests to allow a Type I error by controlling the experiment-wise alpha at a $p<.05$ level.

One-way analyses of variance were used to compare the dominant mode categories with the demographic variables of age, years of formal education, English, mathematics, and science levels of achievement, and average level of achievement.

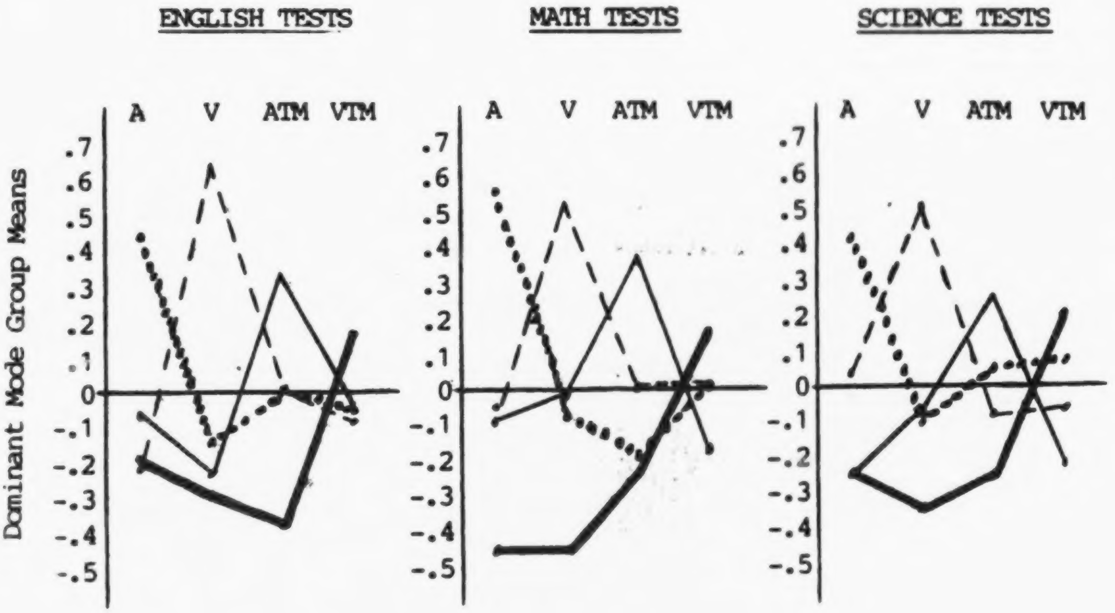
Chi square was used to analyze the relationship between the dominant mode categories and sex. The contingency coefficient was used to measure the strength of the relationship.

Statistical significance for the analyses of variance and chi square was set at $p<.05$. There were not sufficient subjects to analyze the relationship between dominant modes and preferred and self-reported most effective modalities of learning.

Results

The interaction effects for each of the three analysis of variance with repeated measures per subject matter were statistically significant: English ($p<.0001$), mathematics ($p<.0001$), and science ($p<.0014$). The interaction effects are presented on graphs on the next page.

INTERACTION EFFECTS



Key for Dominant Mode Categories

..... Auditory ——— Visual —— Auditahm ▬▬ Visitahm

There is an interaction between dominant mode and activity modality in all twelve activity modes. There is also a one-fourth to one-half standard deviation increase in group means for each dominant mode when compared with the next highest group mean in non-dominant modes. The dominant modality groups are distinct from one another. The visual group is clearly different from the visitahm group. The visitahm group did not score well in the tests for the visual activities. Also, the auditahm group did not score well in the auditory activity tests. Further, the auditahm and visitahm groups separated into two distinct groups.

The Scheffe F-tests revealed statistically significant F-ratios ($p<.1$) for the interactions for every test per mode per subject matter, except for the science auditory test ($p<.154$) and the science auditahm test ($p<.124$). Results indicate that the dominant modality groups scored higher on the tests for activities presented in their dominant modes across at least two subject matter areas for the auditory and the auditahm groups, and across three subject matter areas for the visual and the visitahm groups. Results further indicate that there is no one dominant modality in which most of the subjects scored highest within subject matter.

The one-way analyses of variance between dominant modes and demographic data revealed no statistically significant relationships.

The chi square test showed a statistically significant relationship between dominant mode and sex ($p<.05$). The contingency coefficient rated the strength of the relationship at $C = .756$. Males were more auditory, and females were more visual.

Conclusions

There were four major conclusions drawn from the study. First, adults do possess a dominant sensory modality by which they learn more effectively across at least two subject matter areas. Second, there is no one dominant modality by which all adults learn more effectively within subject matter. Third, adults' dominant sensory modalities are not related to age or years of formal education. Fourth, multimodal teaching approaches are not beneficial for most adult learners.

Implications for Future Research and Practice

Implications for future research include developmental studies to confirm the findings of the study in educational settings, studies to assess the relationship between the time needed for learning and the use of materials compatible with adults' dominant sensory modalities, and studies to identify a neurological process which explains why some adults learn more effectively when using manipulatives which illustrate concepts.

Implications for future practice include the development and use of instruments to help adults become more proficient self-directed learners by enabling them to identify their most effective sensory learning modality. The instruments could also be used by educators in community colleges and in other educational settings to direct students to materials most compatible with their dominant learning mode.

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ISSUES AND RESEARCH DIRECTIONS IN LITERACY VOLUNTARISM

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Abstract

This paper presents the findings of a complex literature review, survey of programs, and discussions with leaders in the literacy volunteer movement. Analysis is made of the literature base, modes of practice, and future directions. The research is a result of an information analysis paper for the ERIC Clearinghouse.

Introduction

The ERIC Clearinghouse on Adult, Career, and Vocational Education annually commissions seven information analysis papers on topics related to the clearinghouse's areas of interest. Paper topics are identified using a variety of methods including suggestions from advisory committee members, reviews of current literature and conference programs, informal discussions with national leaders and professional association personnel, analysis of requests for information received by the clearinghouse, and review of the U.S. Department of Education priorities in adult education. In addition, the size of the existing database—both ERIC and nonERIC—is analyzed for its readiness for review and synthesis.

Information analysis papers are generally written by someone from the field who has been working and writing in the area and/or who has expertise in reviewing and synthesizing literature. Authors are charged with reviewing the relevant literature and providing analysis and synthesis to create new information. They are also asked to present various perspectives on an issue or topic and suggest alternate applications of knowledge for educational improvement.

In the early 1980s, it became evident that adult literacy was a topic of national interest and priority. In order to respond to the need for information on this topic the ERIC Clearinghouse commissioned a general review and synthesis paper on adult literacy. The result was Adult Literacy Education: Current and Future Directions (Fingeret 1984). While this paper was under development, one particular aspect of adult literacy emerged as a "hot topic": the use of volunteers in adult literacy programs. Thus, a second information analysis paper was commissioned to address information needs in this area, and Adult Literacy Volunteers: Issues and Ideas (Ilsley 1985) was developed.

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Literacy voluntarism is popular within governmental education agencies. Yet other organizations, such as businesses, libraries, and service clubs, currently promote it in ways they never have before. Despite an increase in literacy volunteer practice, the literature, and especially the research, remains unsophistocated, descriptive, program specific, and uncohesive. The efficacy of the paradigms with which we view voluntarism, and especially literacy voluntarism, may be placed in scrutiny by a thorough examination of the literature.

Literature on Literacy Voluntarism

A significant percentage of the documents (over 30 percent) located through searches of data bases, as well as a smaller portion of documents from other sources, focus on literacy volunteer campaigns, crusades, and projects in other countries. Especially through efforts of the World Council on Adult Education and the United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization, many attempts have been made to bring literacy educators together to define what it means to be literate, what the goals of literacy initiatives should be, and how people (students) can be involved in the determination of curricula. These organizations recognize illiteracy is part of a global condition. Several national literacy volunteer campaigns lay claim to reaching more than 90 percent of the illiterate population. Outstanding examples of such literacy programs can be found in Cuba and Nicaragua, and to a lesser extent, in Great Britain, the Soviet Union, the Philippines, Iran, and Mexico.

Including manuals, reports, and books, perhaps as much as one half of the literature base is devoted to describing the mechanics of volunteer-based programs. One reason for the preponderance of such material is that final reports, manuals, or books concerning administration of volunteer-based programs, are generally stipulated as a part of funding requirements for grants received from libraries, state and provincial offices of adult basic education, and local school and community college authorities. These administrative manuals are frequently written as if they are intended for novices of the profession and suggest that literacy voluntarism itself is a new idea. Administrative materials, especially those contained in program reports, are laden with success stories, not failures, that are often attributed to a keen organizational strategy. An outcome from this is that, over a 30 year span, manuals of volunteer administration have proliferated but have remained general and unchanged.

Analysis of the Literature

As is true for any relatively new field of endeavor, major gaps can be detected in the literature base of literacy voluntarism. There is, in fact, a paucity of meaningful research. As Fingeret (1984) observes, what little research has been conducted "tends to focus on the volunteer rather than on the relationship between volunteers and the programmatic context. Additional research is desperately needed" (p. 23). Her contention is supported by this study. Though pragmatic works abound, most are based on conventional wisdom and experiential insight. Missing is information and research that allows generalization of conclusions beyond the program-specific level, research on the relationship between volunteers and paid staff, investigation of what happens to volunteers as they progress through a literacy volunteer program, and studies of the transformation that occurs to the structure of an organization when a volunteer component is attached to it. The field abounds with works of the "how to" sort but too little emphasis is placed on examination of philosophic underpinnings of the tools and strategies of literacy volunteer settings.

The following points are intended to summarize the state of the art of the literature base of literacy voluntarism:

1. The majority of the literature is descriptive and case-specific in nature. Literacy volunteer administrators never seem to tire of writing detailed accounts of their programs. Several hundred reports have been written since the 1960s describing various program features. Many are useful for conveying successes and constraints of program strategies. But for the most part the reports are written as if the viability of literacy voluntarism must be proven with every account.

2. The next largest group of material are publications that refer to strategies for success. Typically, the approach taken is to inform volunteer administrators of tried and proven techniques of program planning, implementation, and monitoring. Components of program planning models, such as recruitment, orientation and training of volunteers, instructional approaches, development of instructional materials, student assessment, counseling of volunteers, and program evaluation receive special attention.

3. There is no detectable cohesiveness or direction of research. Nor is there evidence that the literature builds on itself. Rather, for the most part, it is idiosyncratic, time specific, or of a short-range nature.

4. There has not been a perceptible evolution of information; many of the concerns expressed in the 1960s are reiterated today with first-time exuberance. Examples include the professionalization of volunteers and volunteer coordinators, the need for increased governmental support, strategies for increased public recognition, and suggestions for the formulation of coalitions. A possible explanation for this is the relatively little attention, and therefore progress, afforded literacy voluntarism up until recently.

5. Current actions, such as the National Awareness Campaign, funding of the National Adult Literacy Project, the rise of volunteer components in Adult Basic Education Programs and libraries, and the advent of the Coalition for Adult Literacy, to name a few, suggest that progress has been made to win support of educators and the public alike. However, analysis of these achievements and reformulation of long-range strategies have not been forthcoming.

6. Very few works can be found in the data bases that describe the overtly political, Freirian-type community-oriented (also referred to as community-based organizations or CBOs). For understandable reasons, namely lack of funding and human resources, leaders of these organizations do not often engage in research. A notable exception is the monograph funded by B. Dalton Booksellers, Adult Literacy: Study of Community Based Literacy Programs (Zachariadis 1983). It is a survey study of a representational number of community based literacy programs in different parts of the country.

7. The prevailing managerial schemes for literacy voluntarism have, for the most part, remained unchallenged for 30 years. The result has been at least twofold: first, elaboration of various techniques have caused greater levels of efficiency in volunteer programs, i.e., productive recruitment campaigns and higher retention rates, and second, an "employment model" replete with job descriptions and programmed training schemes dominates programs. The illusion results that there is and ought to be a homogeneity of strategy among literacy volunteer programs instead of a diversity of approaches.

8. Even though there seems to be no evolution of type of volunteer program reflected in the literature base there is an unmistakable trend toward professionalization of volunteers. From various sources, (Crandall, et al 1985) planners of literacy volunteer programs are encouraged to develop structured training and management schemes for volunteers and for volunteer coordinators. Certification of volunteers through training volunteers has gained attention.

Conclusion

Literacy voluntarism has been viewed as a stopgap measure, a program component that may inhibit professionalization of the literacy field, and even as an exploitive strategy that capitalizes on the goodwill of volunteers. A frequent criticism levied at the skill level of volunteers is that they are not suitably trained and therefore lack proper expertise: "Many well-meaning volunteers believe that because they themselves can read, they are capable of teaching another person to read. This attitude, although well-intended, is an over-simplification of the skills necessary to teach an adult illiterate to read" (Meyer 1985, p.707). Without examination of assumptions, and research to refute them, such assertions remain moot.

Critics of literacy voluntarism actually come from different directions. On one front there are profesional reading specialists and adult educators who express concern that literacy volunteers are undertrained. Coming from another direction are the liberatory educators who argue that volunteers are overly specialized in reading technique, removed from the context of the learners and neglectful of the societal roots of the problem. To reach a greater percentage of the illiterate population, according to vocal critics, literacy must be viewed as more than acquisition of discrete skills of reading and arithmetic; it must be viewed as part of the domain of empowerment of disenfranchised groups of people (Heaney 1983; Kozol 1985). Accordingly, increased funding of traditional programs alone will not meaningfully reduce the illiteracy problem. What is needed instead are a variety of models of literacy voluntarism and tolerance for alternative models.

But myths and unsubstantiated assumptions about literacy volunteers preclude tolerance. Before alternative models receive acceptance, additional research must be conducted. As literacy voluntarism gains attention the chances are foundational research will confirm or refute prevailing managerial assumptions, such as the ones below:

1.**Literacy volunteer programs ought to be highly structured.** The assumption is made that retention and performance of volunteers is linked to program structure. In this sense, technical rationality is a guiding principle for volunteer management. It is assumed by some that the more structure for volunteers the better, but there is no convincing proof of this from research.

2.**Literacy volunteer programs benefit from diversity and heterogeneity of volunteers.** This point is much in debate. Some programs will accept the help of all willing persons, while others prefer only indigenous volunteers. Research on the importance and role of solidarity in volunteer settings will help to settle such debates.

3.**Partnerships between corporate organizations and the voluntary sector will provide status, not to mention increased revenue, to the field of literacy voluntarism.** The advent of corporate involvement in literacy voluntarism is a relatively new phenomenon. Advantages of a partnership include increased status and funding. Yet to be determined is the influence of corporate pressure on program flexibility. Similarly, what kinds of literacy volunteer programs are to be included and what kinds are to be excluded from partnership? Does the emergence of the corporate sector in literacy voluntarism preclude independent programs from reaching "legitimate" status? Research is needed to determine the answers to these questions and others related to corporate involvement.

4. **Volunteers must be significantly involved if illiteracy is to be meaningfully reduced in the United States.** The Adult Education Act of 1966 promised eradication of illiteracy within 10 years, yet, according to some estimates, all adult literacy education efforts combined merely keep pace with the rising illiteracy problem. Research is needed to find out what it would take to reduce adult illiteracy significantly. What would be the role of volunteers in the process? What kind of social unrest will this awaken?

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The Identification and Management of Student Stress on Courses for Professional Education and Training: A Report on Students studying for the Diploma in Adult Education in Britain.

The Conference Paper

The paper offers a summary from psychological and physiological research on the effects of stress on learning performance in a variety of settings requiring adaptive responses for personal survival.

The first stage of a research project on student stress during a course leading to professional qualification for Adult Education is reported.

The theoretical implications for current philosophies of adult education and schools of psychology contributing knowledge about the process of teaching and learning, are explored.
The need for a transactional model of stress which seeks to take account of stressors operating in the life of the student as well as those inherent in programmes of learning, is argued. The advantages and disadvantages of explicit management of student stress in educational settings are considered.

Aims for Discussion of the Paper

Vignettes on individual students who have experienced high stress during their studies will be presented. This information has been obtained from remedial counselling with the students. The vignettes will be used to generate hypotheses concerning the transactional nature of stress for adult students engaged in programmes of formal learning and to illustrate typical stress responses.

A report will be made on the research undertaken with one group of students studying for the Diploma in Adult Education. This will include an account of stressors reported by students; an outline of the aids to learning and study adjustment provided for the students; and an evaluation of the effectiveness of these aids as perceived by the students.

It is hoped that the discussion of the paper will provide an opportunity to compare the range of stressors experienced by professional students in Britain and America, and that it will be possible to exchange information on strategies for the prevention and amelioration of high stress in adult learners on courses offering accreditation.

Jones, C.J.

Locus of Control and Values of Adult Learners In Schools of Business and Education: A Comparison

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Abstract

This investigation studied the relationship between Locus of Control and Value Orientations of adult learners in a university setting. Demographic information and data from Rotter's Internal-External LOC Scale and Rokeach's Value Survey were gathered from 1139 adult learners from two professional schools in the university. Results indicated that older adult learners, especially the males, were internally oriented. Significant age and sex difference trends were observed for both terminal and instrumental values as tested by ANOVAs. Subjects within the two schools viewed the top ranked values similarly indicating that the variables of age and sex, and not school curriculum, accounted for the differences in the perceived importance of he values. Partial correlations of terminal value rankings with LOC scores controlled for age and sex for subjects wihin both schools revealed that subjects from both schools who were more internally oriented valued "A Sense of Accomplishment," "A World of Peace," and "Equality." Instrumental value partial correlations showed differences in perceived modes of behavior with internally oriented Education subjects valuing "Intellectual," "Logical," "Polite," "Honest" and "Ambitious," while internal Business subjects valued "Ambitious," "Broadminded," "Responsible" and "Capable." Thus, while the top terminal values were similar, the perceived means for attaining these valued outcomes appear to differ for internally oriented persons in the two professional schools.

The emergence of a new breed of adult learners using higher education for career enhancement, re-tooling and/or for promotion within their own agencies and institutions has been noted for some time (Cross, 1976).

In the main, though, traditionally oriented faculty do not seem to have made any real adjustments to their teaching styles or teaching techniques to accommodate these new adult learners. Yet, it is perceptively clear that these adults display differences in their value systems and in their sense of self-sufficiency and personal control of their lives. To what degree should these differences impact upon the ways faculty interact with these new adult learners? Should faculty pay more attention to age differences, self-reliant behaviors and the value orientations of adult learners who are becoming more prominent in their classes? Answers to these questions are just now being systematically studied.

Adult development and related adult education literature suggest that as age increases there is an internal orientation shift in perceived self-control and values (Levinson, 1978; Gould, 1978; Knoop, 1981; and Londoner et. al. 1985).

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Social learning theory (Rotter, 1966; Phares, 1976; Lefcourt, 1982, 1983) is often used to explain personal control and self-reliant behaviors. This theoretical construct stresses the idea that behaviors are determined simultaneously by the variables of expectancy and reinforcement value. Specifically, researchers have held the idea that one's Locus of Control, (LOC), refers to the belief about the causal relationship between one's behaviors and the subsequent occurrence of a reinforcement. External control refers to the belief that fate, luck, chance, the system, or powerful others mediate the causal relationship. Internal control refers to the belief that the occurrence of reinforcements are contingent upon one's own behaviors.

Rokeach (1973), who has pioneered research on value orientations, has shown that there are developmental patterns in values as people age. He has described two sets of values: terminal or ends-oriented values and instrumental or means-oriented values. The terminal values suggest goals that are worth striving for (e.g., "Self-Respect," "A Sense of Accomplishment," "Freedom," etc). Instrumental values refer to conceptions of the desirable modes of behaviors that help to attain outcomes, (e.g., "Intellectual," "Ambitions," "Courageous," etc.).

The systematic study of the relationship that may exist between LOC and values of adult learners using higher education as a means of mid-career professional development, career change and/or entry into the work force has just recently begun with the study of these new adult learners in a School of Education (Londoner, Linder, Bauer, 1985). This current study expands the earlier work by describing the relationships between LOC and Value Orientations of adult learners in both Schools of Business and Education in a large urban university.

Specifically, the following research questions guided this study:

1. What are the LOC orientations of adult learners in Schools of Business and Education and do older adult learners display a more internal orientation than younger ones?

2. Do males and females within and between Schools of Business and Education display different LOC orientations?.

3. What are the value orientations of male and female adult learners within Schools of Business and Education and do the value priorities of older adult learners differ from the younger learners?

4. Do males and females of all ages between Schools of Business and Education display different value priorities?

5. What is the relationship that exists between sex, age, LOC and values of adult learners within and between Schools of Business and Education?

METHOD

Students were enrolled in Business and Education programs at Virginia Commonwealth University in Richmond during the 1983-1985 academic years. Subjects ranged in age from 18 years to over 40. There were 413 subjects (337 females and 76 males) in the School of Education sample and 726 (422 females and 304 males) in the School of Business sample.

Rotter's (1966) Internal-External Locus of Control Scale which consisted of 23 question pairs within a forced-choice format plus six filler questions was used. The I-E scale has been judged appropriate for use with college educated adult subjects (Lefcourt, 1981).

Rokeach's Value Survey was the second instrument used and consisted of 18 alphabetically listed terminal and instrumental values on separate pages. Subjects rank order each list of values according to the relative importane of each value to themselves.

A three-part survey comprising demographic data plus the two instruments was given to instructors to distribute to their classes. Part I requested informations concerning subject's age, sex, marital status, work, and major. Part II consisted of Rotter's I-E Scale and Part III included Rokeach's Value Survey (Form D). Subjects were asked to take the questionnaires home, complete and return them via a self-addressed envelope. A 54% and 50% rate of response was obtained from the Schools of Business and Education, respectively.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The results for questions one and two concerning LOC orientations, age and sex are displayed in Table 1. On the Rotter I-E scale the lower the score the more interally oriented a subject is. In this sample older adult learners within both schools showed descending mean scores. The analysis of variance suggested that older adult leaners were more internally oriented than younger learners. In most studies a mean score below 8.50 is considered an internal orientation on an I-E scale that runs from 1-23. Using this standard it is clear that within the School of Education the three older age groups are more internally oriented (M = 8.40, 8.30 and 7.90 respectively) as compared to the School of Business sample. There, only the oldest age group showed significant intrnal orientation (M = 6.53). These results are consistent with Knoop (1981) and Londoner, Linder and Bauer (1985). When an overall ANOVA was computed it showed that the age differences remained statistically significant [F(4, 1116) = 9.01, p < .0001)]. Hence, for this study, most of the subjects from the School of Education were internally oriented but that the older students were more so. Moreover, the oldest age group from the School of Business were internally oriented.

The data also showed that male LOC mean scores within both schools were lower than female scores in this sample. Males within the School of Business approached an internal orientation (Males, M = 8.66 vs. Females, M = 10.18) while males in the School of Education achieved internal orientation (Males, M = 7.82 vs. Females, M = 9.20). Thus, while both males and females in both schools tended toward internal orientation, the males were more significantly internal. Similar results were reported by McNeil and Jacobs (1980) and Londoner, et. al., (1985). An overall ANOVA further validated the sex differences in LOC scores [F(1, 1116) = 14.71, p < .0001].

Table 1. Descriptive Statistics for Locus of Control Scores for Age and Sex. By School

	School of Business			School of Education		
Age	N	Mean	SD	N	Mean	SD
18-22	326	10.42	4.22	100	10.69	4.17
23-29	224	9.06	4.35	107	8.79	3.89
30-34	93	9.16	4.10	70	8.40	3.90
35-39	48	8.60	4.16	56	8.30	3.81
40+	32	6.53	3.61	80	7.90	3.73
	F(4,713) = 8.24 P = .0001			F(4,403) = 3.39 P = .0097		
Sex	N	Mean	SD	N	Mean	SD
Male	304	8.66	4.37	76	7.82	3.50
Female	422	10.08	4.10	337	9.20	4.13
	F(1,713) = 15.44 P = .0001			F(1,403) = 3.20 P = .0743		

Question three addressed the value priorities of adult learners in both schools and asked whether or not the value priorities of older adult learners differed from the younger ones. Question four asked whether or not the sexes have different value priorities. Table 2 displays the ANOVA data for these questions for the School of Business. For the terminal values a number of priorities showed statistically significant differences. "Self Respect" was ranked number one with significant sex and age main effects (p = .011, p = .002 respectively). There was also a significant sex and age interaction. "Happiness" was ranked second with a significant age main effect (p = .001). The younger age groups ranked it either first or second while the oldest group ranked it eighth in importance. "Freedom" was ranked third and there were no differences in sex or age for this value.

There were several signifiant trends across all age categories for both sexes for the instrumental values. "Honest" was ranked first and there were no differences between the age groups and sexes. "Responsible" was the second ranked value with sex having a significant difference. Both sexes ranked it second, but, females had a lower mean score (Females, M = 5.78; Males, M = 6.01, p < .047). "Loving" was ranked third with a significant sex difference. Females ranked it third (M = 6.63) and males ranked it fifth (M = 8.12).

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Table 2. Mean Ranks for Values, and P-Values from Analysis of Variance
for Sex, Age and Interaction, Controlling for All Other Effects:
School of Business

Terminal Value	Mean Rank of Rank Value	P-value for Sex	Age	Sex*Age	Instrumental Value	Mean Rank of Rank Value	P-value for Sex	Age	Sex*Age
A Comfortable Life	9.89 (10)	.237	.001	.996	Ambitious	7.53 (5)	.181	.421	.232
An Exciting Life	11.08 (13)	.009	.012	.184	Broadminded	8.60 (7)	.642	.218	.328
Sense of Accomplishment	8.43 (8)	.021	.001	.731	Capable	8.33 (6)	.009	.008	.694
A World of Peace	10.39 (11)	.023	.200	.336	Cheerful	10.35 (13)	.490	.749	.467
A World of Beauty	13.04 (18)	.466	.109	.715	Clean	12.41 (17)	.306	.000	.563
Equality	11.51 (14)	.001	.012	.586	Courageous	10.21 (12)	.767	.042	.543
Family Security	6.63 (4)	.342	.728	.337	Forgiving	9.79 (9)	.262	.001	.069
Freedom	6.68 (3)	.597	.924	.467	Helpful	10.17 (11)	.278	.142	.051
Happiness	6.27 (2)	.283	.001	.037	Honest	4.72 (1)	.655	.181	.464
Inner Harmony	8.24 (6)	.074	.003	.000	Imaginative	12.24 (16)	.186	.008	.795
Mature Love	8.48 (7)	.782	.333	.024	Independent	7.48 (4)	.198	.164	.644
National Security	12.69 (16)	.951	.163	.008	Intellectual	9.18 (8)	.043	.091	.366
Pleasure	11.82 (15)	.627	.008	.043	Logical	10.57 (14)	.002	.018	.023
Salvation	10.50 (12)	.182	.106	.058	Loving	7.25 (3)	.008	.139	.288
Self-Respect	5.98 (1)	.011	.002	.038	Obedient	14.90 (18)	.328	.000	.383
Social Recognition	12.96 (17)	.018	.970	.084	Polite	11.23 (15)	.816	.008	.742
True Friendship	7.02 (5)	.029	.001	.355	Responsible	5.05 (2)	.047	.536	.166
Wisdom	8.67 (9)	.353	.001	.576	Self-Controlled	10.83 (10)	.003	.991	.285

Table 3 portrays the ANOVA data for the terminal and instrumental values for the School of Education. For the terminal values only "True Friendship" showed a significant age trend for both males and females ($p = .001$). The youngest males ranked it first while the oldest males ranked it tenth. Females displayed the same trend, viz., the youngest ones ranked it second and the oldest ranked it eighth. Note that for males and females across all age groups there were no statistically significant differences for the values "Self-Respect," "Family Security," and "Freedom." That is, they were the most highly ranked values for the School of Education sample. "Self-Respect" and "Family Security" were also reported as high value priorities for males and females by Linder and Bauer (1983) and Londoner, et. al., (1985).

There were several significant trends across ages for the instrumental values. Females displayed significant age differences on the value "Forgiving" (it was important for the older women) and "Independent" (older women ranked it more important than younger ones). Other female value shifts across age were noted for the values "Intellectual," "Capable," and "Logical." "Honest," "Responsible," and "Loving" were highly ranked by both sexes across all age groups with no statistically significant differences noted.

Table 3. Mean Ranks for Values, and P-Values from Analysis of Variance
for Sex, Age and Interaction, Controlling for All Other Effects:
School of Education

Terminal Value	Mean Rank of Rank Value	P-value for Sex	Age	Sex*Age	Instrumental Value	Mean Rank of Rank Value	P-value for Sex	Age	Sex*Age
A Comfortable Life	10.88 (13)	.028	.768	.052	Ambitious	10.05 (11)	.282	.529	.467
An Exciting Life	12.01 (14)	.206	.031	.306	Broadminded	8.60 (7)	.025	.932	.499
Sense of Accomplishment	8.51 (9)	.046	.110	.114	Capable	8.56 (6)	.555	.006	.652
A World of Peace	9.06 (10)	.035	.934	.712	Cheerful	10.41 (13)	.003	.952	.033
A World of Beauty	12.77 (16)	.193	.667	.012	Clean	12.93 (17)	.005	.413	.458
Equality	10.38 (12)	.023	.563	.796	Courageous	10.26 (12)	.544	.328	.075
Family Security	6.19 (2)	.052	.003	.386	Forgiving	8.97 (8)	.018	.313	.761
Freedom	7.13 (3)	.490	.374	.358	Helpful	8.43 (5)	.368	.092	.737
Happiness	7.16 (4)	.132	.124	.662	Honest	4.98 (1)	.148	.362	.737
Inner Harmony	7.58 (6)	.268	.017	.788	Imaginative	11.51 (16)	.095	.169	.078
Mature Love	8.46 (8)	.366	.396	.180	Independent	8.14 (4)	.065	.091	.438
National Security	12.75 (15)	.565	.019	.910	Intellectual	9.11 (9)	.259	.005	.012
Pleasure	13.15 (17)	.076	.048	.994	Logical	10.94 (14)	.002	.084	.111
Salvation	10.32 (11)	.058	.039	.604	Loving	6.28 (3)	.009	.004	.024
Self-Respect	5.38 (1)	.278	.263	.981	Obedient	14.97 (18)	.048	.000	.571
Social Recognition	13.65 (18)	.089	.969	.514	Polite	11.28 (15)	.039	.004	.023
True Friendship	7.54 (5)	.212	.001	.148	Responsible	5.77 (2)	.006	.649	.735
Wisdom	8.07 (7)	.021	.242	.537	Self-Controlled	9.80 (10)	.009	.243	.057

Question four asked what differences were obtained for males and females across all ages between schools. Table 4 displays the responses to this question. For the terminal values the first four ranks for both schools were: "Self-Respect," "Happiness," "Freedom" and "Family Security." Note that School of Business subjects ranked "Happiness" second while Edution subjects ranked it fourth. These two values flip-flopped in rank importance for the two schools. For "Self-Respect" a sex difference was noted ($p = .015$). For "Happiness," (ranked second by Business and fourth by Education) there was a significant age difference ($p = .001$). There were no significant differences noted for "Freedom." Both school samples of all ages and both sexes viewed it as their third rank. "Family Security" (ranked fourth for Business, second for Education) showed a significant age difference ($p = .007$).

For the instrumental values the first four ranks for both schools were identical. "Honest" ranked first by both, was significant between schools ($p = .028$) but not for sex or age.

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"Responsible" ranked second, was not statistically significant. That is, all age groups and both sexes between the schools viewed it identically. "Loving," ranked third, displayed significant sex and age differences with sex, age, school interactions. That is, there are very different patterns displayed for all these variables on this value. "Independent," ranked fourth by both schools, had significant age and school main effects.

Table 4. Mean Ranks for Values, and P-Values from Analysis of Variance for Sex, Age, School and Interactions, Controlling for All Other Effects.

Terminal Value	Business Mean Rank of Rank Value	Education Mean Rank of Rank Value	P-Value for Sex	Age	School	Interaction Present	Instrumental Value	Business Mean Rank of Rank Value	Education Mean Rank of Rank Value	P-Value for Sex	Age	School	Interaction Present
A Comfortable Life	9.09 (10)	10.00 (13)	.010	.050	.079		Ambitious	7.33 (5)	10.05 (11)	.003	.193	.000	
An Exciting Life	11.08 (13)	12.01 (16)	.009	.178	.561		Broadminded	8.40 (7)	8.69 (7)	.039	.907	.283	
Sense of Accomplishment	8.43 (8)	8.51 (9)	.183	.002	.443		Capable	8.33 (6)	8.56 (6)	.593	.000	.064	
A World of Peace	10.39 (11)	9.06 (10)	.077	.472	.243		Cheerful	10.34 (13)	10.41 (13)	.006	.866	.146	
A World of Beauty	13.04 (18)	12.77 (16)	.128	.988	.025	BA(.014)	Clean	12.61 (17)	12.93 (17)	.031	.007	.749	
Equality	11.51 (14)	10.30 (12)	.000	.053	.078		Courageous	10.22 (12)	10.26 (12)	.508	.183	.626	
Family Security	6.63 (4)	6.19 (2)	.660	.007	.201		Forgiving	9.00 (9)	8.97 (8)	.007	.019	.439	
Freedom	6.60 (3)	7.13 (3)	.364	.328	.328		Helpful	10.17 (11)	8.45 (5)	.960	.514	.000	
Happiness	6.27 (2)	7.16 (4)	.064	.001	.036		Honest	4.71 (1)	4.90 (1)	.147	.266	.029	
Inner Harmony	8.34 (6)	7.30 (6)	.049	.005	.018	AC(.048)	Imaginative	12.25 (16)	11.31 (16)	.028	.009	.566	
Mature Love	8.40 (7)	8.46 (8)	.383	.003	.058		Independent	7.48 (4)	8.14 (4)	.018	.171	.004	
National Security	12.69 (16)	12.75 (15)	.670	.017	.200		Intellectual	9.10 (8)	9.11 (9)	.703	.001	.330	SC(.033)
Pleasure	11.02 (15)	13.15 (17)	.184	.000	.188		Logical	10.50 (14)	10.94 (14)	.000	.006	.523	
Salvation	10.50 (12)	10.33 (11)	.335	.036	.000		Loving	7.26 (3)	6.26 (3)	.006	.000	.252	SAC(.032)
Self-Respect	5.90 (1)	5.30 (1)	.015	.109	.761		Obedient	14.97 (18)	14.97 (18)	.029	.000	.004	
Social Recognition	12.96 (17)	13.65 (18)	.084	.947	.214		Polite	11.21 (15)	11.28 (15)	.990	.000	.060	AC(.022)
True Friendship	7.03 (5)	7.56 (5)	.020	.000	.369	BA(.065)	Responsible	5.86 (2)	5.77 (2)	.403	.575	.440	
Wisdom	8.67 (9)	8.07 (7)	.017	.000	.305		Self-Controlled	10.04 (10)	9.08 (10)	.000	.020	.096	SAC(.034)

To summarize, subjects within the two schools apparently viewed the top ranked terminal and instrumental values almost identically. While there are a few between school differences, the major differences are between the sexes and age groups. Thus, professional curriculum, for these samples, does not account for the major differences. Rather, the independent variables of age and sex account for the differences in the perceived importance of the values. This is consistent with Londoner, Linder and Bauer's findings (1985).

Question five asked what relationship existed between sex, age, LOC and values of adult learners within and between both schools. Partial correlations of terminal value rankings with LOC scores controlled for age and sex for the Schools of Business and Education are displayed in Table 5. A positive correlation showed that the more internal one was the more one tended to subscribe to that value. Negative correlations mean that the more external one was the one more subscribed to that value.

Table 5. Partial Correlations of Terminal Value Rankings with Locus of Control Scores Controlling for Age and Sex: By School.

School of Business Value	Partial Correlation	P-Value	School of Education Value	Partial Correlation	P-Value
Sense of Accomplishment	.083	.007	Self-Respect	.071	.064
A World of Peace	.080	.021	Wisdom	.069	.086
Equality	.068	.035	Freedom	.062	.094
National Security	.063	.053	Sense of Accomplishment	.060	.100
Wisdom	.061	.053	A World of Beauty	.048	.198
Self-Respect	.058	.054	True Friendship	.026	.529
Freedom	.048	.126	Inner Harmony	.024	.491
Inner Harmony	.006	.845	Equality	.020	.598
Salvation	.005	.882	Mature Love	.018	.631
Happiness	-.006	.845	Social Recognition	.009	.821
A World of Beauty	-.013	.664	An Exciting Life	-.009	.814
Social Recognition	-.019	.548	A World of Peace	-.010	.785
True Friendship	-.030	.324	Happiness	-.019	.631
An Exciting Life	-.048	.137	Pleasure	-.029	.454
Family Security	-.056	.090	Salvation	-.042	.278
A Comfortable Life	-.072	.026	National Security	-.047	.212
Mature Love	-.094	.002	A Comfortable Life	-.071	.064
Pleasure	-.123	.000	Family Security	-.077	.048

That data showed that more internally oriented persons within the School of Business significantly valued "A Sense of Accomplishment," "A World of Peace," "Equality," "National Security," "Wisdom," and "Self-Respect." School of Education internally-oriented subjects valued "Self-Respect," "Wisdom," "Freedom" and "A Sense of Accomplishment." The p values, though not significant indicated a trend toward a positive relationship between LOC and these terminal values.

Table 6 displays the partial correlational data for the instrumental values for both schools. "Ambitions" was significantly related to internally oriented persons. Not surprisingly for business oriented persons, "Broad-minded," "Responsible," and "Capable" began to approach a statistically positive correlation. Within the School of Education more internally oriented persons valued "Intellectual," "Logical," "Polite," "Honest," "Ambitious" and "Independent" modes of behavior. These findings are consistent with prior research portraying internally oriented persons as independent, competent, and intellectual (Crandall and Crandall, 1983). Thus, while the top terminal values were similar, the perceived means for attaining these valued outcomes appear to differ for internally oriented persons in the two professinal schools.

Table 6. Partial Correlations of Instrumental Value Rankings with Locus of Control Scores Controlling for Age and Sex: By School.

School of Business			School of Education		
Value	Partial Correlation	P-Value	Value	Partial Correlation	P-Value
Ambitious	.101	.001	Intellectual	.055	.160
Broadminded	.056	.089	Logical	.038	.350
Responsible	.049	.112	Polite	.037	.338
Capable	.049	.118	Honest	.021	.560
Intellectual	.034	.263	Ambitious	.017	.655
Logical	.028	.377	Imaginative	.015	.695
Imaginative	.027	.398	Independent	.010	.800
Courageous	.020	.522	Courageous	.008	.834
Independent	.003	.924	Responsible	.005	.902
Self-Controlled	.002	.939	Loving	-.002	.952
Honest	-.002	.951	Capable	-.007	.850
Helpful	-.006	.844	Forgiving	-.018	.640
Forgiving	-.015	.659	Self-Controlled	-.021	.583
Cheerful	-.023	.520	Obedient	-.023	.555
Obedient	-.021	.493	Clean	-.025	.509
Loving	-.053	.071	Helpful	-.035	.386
Polite	-.080	.012	Broadminded	-.040	.311
Clean	-.101	.001	Cheerful	-.105	.006

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GRASSROOTS COMPUTER EDUCATION: A STUDY OF COMPUTER USER GROUPS AND THE MODEL THEY PROVIDE FOR LEARNING TO COPE WITH NEW TECHNOLOGY

Abstract

This study, which was national in scope, examined the role that computer user groups have played in the computer learning of adults. Computer user groups were found to be one form of autonomous learning groups and made a significant contribution to adult learning.

Statement of Problem

Autonomous learning groups have played an important role in adult education in the United States. The Philadelphia Junto, Lyceums, Chautauqua Literary and Scientific Circles, Great Books Program, and study circles are all examples of autonomous learning groups.

Kempfer (1955) devoted a chapter of his book to a discussion of unorganized autonomous groups and their relationship to the field of adult education. Tough (1979) in his research on self-directed education has commented on the importance of autonomous learning groups in helping adults with their learning projects. Legge (1982) indicates that voluntary organizations in Britain "... exist almost everywhere in the country and that these provide organized opportunities for groups to meet in order to gain information, ideas, and stimulus." (p. 135). In a study of these groups, Elsey (1974) found that within voluntary organizations "...instruction or teaching plays a large part in all the leisure activities" (p. 392) and that 64% of the members indicated that learning was an important reason for participation in the group. Brookfield (1984) further explores research on "informal learning networks" and examines how adult educators can support the efforts of these networks. History and current research in adult education both confirm the importance of autonomous learning groups in the learning activities of adults.

In the past six years there has appeared a large number of articles in popular magazines about computer user groups and their activities in supporting new computer users. Based on personal observations of computer user group activities and these articles it appeared to the researcher that computer user groups fell into the category of autonomous learning groups. A literature search revealed no research had been conducted on computer user groups. Therefore it seemed appropriate to conduct an exploratory study about computer user groups. The research study was undertaken to examine the question: What are the organizational structures of computer user groups and what roles do they play in adult computer learning? In addition to the main research question, ten subsidiary questions were also examined. These were:

1. Who joins computer user groups?
2. Why do people join computer user groups?
3. In what non-user group learning activities do members engage to learn about computers?
4. What are the relationships among motivations for joining user groups and outcomes of participation?
5. What are the purposes for which computer user groups are formed?
6. What learning activities and services are offered by user groups?
7. What roles do the leadership perform in establishing and directing learning opportunities?
8. What roles do the members play in establishing and directing learning opportunities?
9. Are computer user groups one form of autonomous learning groups?

10. What elements of computer user groups lend themselves to the construction of a model useful for the adult and community educator.

For this study a computer user group was defined as an organized group of people with a common interest in microcomputers, which has an identifiable membership and meets on a regular basis for the purpose of sharing information about computers. An autonomous learning group was defined as a group which has education as its primary or facilitative role, where the group meets frequently, and the group accepts the responsibility for planning learning activities.

Methodology

There were two phases in the research. The initial phase was a pilot study conducted on one computer user group. This study consisted of a survey distributed to the members of the group. The survey was designed to provide initial data about the main research question and specific data about subsidiary questions 1-4. The basic intent of this pilot study was to determine if adult computer learning was a significant element of computer user group activities. A questionnaire consisting of 34 questions was distributed to all 150 members of the Northeast Indiana IBM-PC User Group and 83 (55%) of the questionnaires were returned. Results of the pilot study indicated that learning was an important function and the second stage of the study was implemented.

Stage two consisted of a study of computer user groups throughout the United States. Triangulation methodology was used consisting of a survey, telephone interviews, and content analysis of user group newsletters. There were 318 questionnaires distributed to groups who were selected from a book by Froehlich (1984) containing a list of approximately 750 groups. This reference was used because no source existed that provided a sampling frame for computer user groups. The questionnaire contained 70 questions. A total of 84 (26%) of the questionnaires were returned and of this group 72 (23%) contained no discrepancies in the data and were used in the data analysis. Telephone interviews were conducted with ten of the respondents who were selected to offer a cross representation of computer user groups according to membership size, geographic location, and the type of personal computer used by members. A content analysis was completed on newsletters, which is a prime source of information for most computer user groups. A supply of 19 newsletters were collected from user groups around the country. In addition, 8 of the respondent groups were requested to send a years supply of newsletters and 4 groups did so.

The survey for the nationwide survey did not yield a high response rate. However, the fundamental reason to be concerned about a response bias is based on the logical extension of probability sampling and does not directly correspond in the case of a purposive or judgemental sampling (Babbie, 1975). The fact that the respondents came from 62% of all states and served computer users who used the most popular personal computers made the respondents representative of the two basic qualities that were originally sought in the distribution of the questionnaire. The survey might not be representative of all computer user groups in the United States but it can still be relied on to provide a basic understanding of computer user groups and the role that they play in adult computer learning. There was an amazing consistency in the data collected in both of the surveys, the interviews, and content analysis that would tend to confirm the validity of the data even though its generalizability might be questionable.

The data from the surveys was analyzed using Lotus 1-2-3 and R:Base

4000 software on the IBM Personal Computer. The analysis consisted of descriptive statistics computed on demographic type data and tabulations and cross tabulations of responses to ranking questions and numerical rating scales.

Description of the Data

The data described in this paper focuses on the main research question and subsidiary questions 1, 2, 5, 9, and 10 because of limited space. Computer user groups were found to exist in every region of the United States. The groups ranged in the size of membership from 6 to 15,000 members and the median size was 100 members. The total number of members of respondent organizations was 55,222. Considering that this represented only 72 of 750 organizations listed in Froehlich's reference section and since other research uncovered an additional 200 groups, it would appear that computer user groups represent a sizeable number of people in the United States. A logical extrapolation of this data would indicate that between 400,000 to 600,000 individuals are members of computer user groups. However, caution should be exercised in using these figures since the respondents to the survey were not part of a random sample.

Computer user groups appeared to fit into four categories. The first category is local autonomous groups. Most of the groups fit into this category. They are independent in that they are operated totally by the membership with no restrictions placed on them by other organizations and they function within a local community. The local autonomous group can be further classified into three types. There is the computer/software specific group where the members use the same type of personal computer, such as the Apple, IBM, Commodore, etc. or the same type of software like Lotus 1-2-3, Dbase II, etc. There are also generic groups whose members attempt to address more general issues and problems concerning personal computers. The third type of local autonomous group is the common interest group where individuals such as physicians, attorneys, engineers join together to explore how the personal computer can be used to meet their specific needs.

The second category of computer user group that was identified is the local semi-autonomous user group. This category is defined as groups which are associated with another organization that may place some restrictions on their activities through policy limitations or membership requirements. These groups are most often associated with a business and may be a part of the employees' recreational program. Another example is universities which sponsor computer user groups and limit the membership to students, staff, and faculty.

A third category of computer user groups is the regional group which establishes subchapters in nearby communities that are associated with the main group. This approach provides members with access to additional resources yet makes it possible to attend community based meetings.

A fourth type of computer user group is the national/international group. This type of group is comprised of a local membership but provides resources such as a newsletter, disk library, and discounts to members throughout the world. It is important to note that some organizations exist that call themselves national computer user groups but do not hold meetings of their membership and are often commercial ventures. These groups were excluded from consideration as computer user groups.

Each category of computer user group were found to accommodate the divergent interests and needs of members by establishing special interest groups (SIG's). These special interest groups will often meet for a specified period during the computer user group's regular meeting time.

However, some occurrences were noted where the groups had their own separate meetings.

Over 90% of the computer user groups studied had a formal organizational structure with officers and membership dues and 23% were incorporated non-profit organizations. The average membership dues were $16 and this gave the groups a median income of $1,000 with some groups earning $30-40,000 annually. Two of the largest groups, the Boston Computer Society and the A.P.P.L.E. Co-op had annual incomes exceeding $400,000 and employed full time staff members to run their administrative operations.

The survey of the Northeast Indiana IBM-PC User Group provided data about the type of individual who joins computer user groups. The average age of the members was 40. Members had an average annual income of $47,500. Their educational level averaged 16.3 years. Eighty nine percent of the members were male and 11% females. Data obtained from magazine articles on computer user groups and from computer user group newsletters indicated that the data from the Northeast Indiana group is basically representative of most computer user groups with the exception that the average age may be slightly lower for many groups and the income is about $10,000 lower for most groups. It should also be noted that computer user groups are not the private domain of adults. Several groups listed the lowest age of members as 7-12 years and other groups reported on organized activities for the children of members.

The most important aspect of this research was to determine the role that computer user groups play in the computer learning of adults. The national survey asked respondents to rate on a scale of 1 (low) to 7 (high) their agreement with the statement: The user group's primary purpose is to help members learn more about computers. The average response was 6.4 indicating an exceptionally high agreement with this statement.

Not only did most groups perceive their main purpose as the facilitation of learning about computers, but members indicated that their primary reason for joining the group was to learn about computers. The survey of the Northeast Indiana group asked members to select from several options their primary reason for joining the group and 42% indicated that their primary reason was to learn more about computers while the next highest response (32%) indicated that the reason was to share common experiences and problems. When respondents were allowed to chose multiple reasons for joining, the largest percentage-88%, indicated that one of the reasons they had joined the group was to learn more about computers. The national survey asked respondents to rate on a scale of 1 (low) to 7 (high) their agreement with the statement: Members join the group primarily to learn more about computers. The average response was 6.2 which indicates very high agreement with this statement and it received the highest rating of all reasons why members might join computer user groups. The data from these questions leaves little doubt that people are motivated to join computer user groups in order to learn more about computers.

In order to further determine if computer user groups were a form of autonomous learning groups, the question was put directly to the respondents of the national survey. They were asked to respond to the statement: Our user group could be described as an autonomous learning group, which is defined as a group which has education as its primary or facilitative role, where the group meets frequently, and the group accepts the responsibility for planning learning activities. The response was 4.6

which indicated that they agreed somewhat with the statement. However, when a cross-tabulation was performed to calculate the responses of those respondents where the group held regularly scheduled meetings, the average rating rose to 5.5 which indicates a much higher level of agreement. Therefore, some respondents might not have agreed with the part of the definition "where the group meets frequently".

The telephone interviews with respondents to the national survey provided interesting data about the elements of computer user groups which lend themselves to construction of a model useful for the adult and community educator. Over 50% of the interviewees felt that their meeting were critical to the success of their group. This information can be better understood by reviewing data about the groups' meetings. Meetings were held regularly by 94% of the groups and according to 84% of the groups the meetings were held on a monthly basis. The meetings lasted an average of approximately 2 hours and 30 minutes. Respondents indicated that a wide variety of methods were used to help members learn more about computers during a meeting. This included in order of popularity demonstrations, question and answer periods, lecture, small group discussion, hands on instruction, and audiovisual demonstration. However, meetings were organized in an interesting manner.

A typical user group meeting begins with a preliminary session where members have an opportunity for informal interaction and socialization. A business meeting will usually then take place. Next, a question and answer period occurs where members can ask any question about computers, software, trends in the industry, etc. and other members of the group respond with answers. This appears to be the most critical element of these meetings. A number of interviewees remarked that they had never observed a situation in which a member did not have their question answered by someone in the group. The question and answer periods also allowed individuals an opportunity to identify a topic they were interested in discussing and invited others to meet with them during the special interest group meetings. The next portion of the meeting was usually a formal presentation. These presentations may be made by a member, someone from the community, or a computer vendor demonstrating a new product. After the formal session there were often SIG meetings or brief tutorials (sessions organized as short classes). Finally, the meeting concluded with a buy and swap session. Most frequently, the items sold were disks containing public domain or shareware software.

Newsletters published by the group were considered to be another extremely important service to the members. The newsletters are usually published every month and vary from a few pages produced on a copier to professionally published magazines. The newsletters provide articles designed to help members learn more about their computers, question and answer columns, descriptions of services to members, consumer information, and news about computer related items.

The interviewees were asked if they thought an educational institution could provide services like a computer user group. The consensus of the group can be summed up in the words of one interviewee: "in possibility yes, in actuality no." There were several conditions identified that educational institutions would need to duplicate that the respondents did not perceive fitting into the normal mode of operation for such institutions. These were:

1. Members were seeking solutions to problems. The group must be oriented toward problem solving and be relevant.
2. The groups were very flexible and adjusted their services quickly

to meet the expressed needs of members.

3. Members were an integral part of the learning process functioning alternatively as both teacher and student.

All of the interviewees felt that both educational institutions and computer user groups could benefit from closer cooperation. One of the groups was in fact a university based group that had membership open to any person in the community.

Conclusions

Computer user groups are one form of autonomous learning groups. They are organized with the primary purpose of facilitating the computer learning of their members. However, in seeking to meet this purpose they attempted to provide for a broader scope of member needs. It is possible for individuals to learn in an environment that meets many of their social needs as well as educational needs. These groups are a significant force in adult computer learning. They have hundreds of thousands of members and expend millions of dollars each year in meeting the needs of their members.

Adult and community educators need to conduct more research about autonomous learning groups. Computer user groups are just the tip of the iceberg. A significant amount of learning takes place in such groups as Bible studies, voluntary organizations, clubs, hobbyist groups, and dozens of other types of groups. Adult and community educators should also more closely examine groups like computer user groups which have been established to help individuals adopt and implement a new technology. A more intensive examination of this topic would help us better understand how to prepare people for change in a society where change is occurring at an ever increasing rate.

The continuous and rapid development of new technology will place increasing demands on individuals to change and adapt to new technology. More importantly, individuals should learn to control the technology rather than react to it. Computer user groups provide a model that can be duplicated by adult and community educators in helping people take control of the technology and use it to improve their lives.

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Antecedent Stigmatizing Experiences: Associations to Life-Style Classifications of Adult High School Noncompleters

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Abstract

The antecedent stigmatizing experiences of three life-style classifications of adult high school non-completers were analyzed. The classifications differed significantly in exposure to four stigmatizing experiences.

PROBLEM

Literacy research has often relied on an analysis of adult experiences and personality characteristics to explain the psychosocial perceptions and behaviors of adult high school non-completers (AHSN-Cs). However, this approach has not generated sufficient information to form an integrated holistic perspective of the life-styles experienced by AHSN-Cs which links their adult behaviors with their antecedent preadulthood experiences. An analysis of antecedent stigmatizing experiences could provide insight into the sources of the negative personality attributes of many AHSN-Cs (Wilson, 1980; Killian, 1969; and others) and perhaps offer suggestions for needed programmatic changes to address the related learning needs of those learners most in need of literacy services, but who are most likely to fail to persist in literacy programs.

STIGMA

"Stigma" is a constant companion of the majority of AHSN-Cs (Hunter and Harman, 1979). Persons who do not possess a high school diploma or lack literacy skills are often denied employment and in interactions with the wider society their other attributes are often overshadowed by their primary identity of being an AHSN-C.

Stigma is a trait, (e.g., abominations of the body, blemishes of individual character, and tribal stigmas involving race, religion, ethnic identity, etc.) that results in the possessor being negatively differentiated by society. The consequence of being stigmatized is that an individual who could have been received in ordinary social intercourse, possesses a trait that can obtrude itself upon attention and turn the people he/she meets away, thereby breaking the claim that his/her other attributes may have on the perceiver (Goffman, 1963). It is when the stigmatized individual accepts the wider beliefs of society that the stigma affects self-esteem. By incorporating these standards, stigmatized individuals acquire the sense of what constitutes a "normal person", while simultaneously perceiving that others do not accept them as being "normal". This perception of non-normalness and other's non-acceptance can result in believing that they are less than normal.

However, the effects of stigma on the personality of stigmatized persons are variable. When the stigmatized person is surrounded by "sympathetic others", (e.g., those who share the stigma, or normals who share the life of the stigmatized) the application of the stigma by society is mediated, and feelings of self-derogation are less likely to occur. Because of the experiences encountered in numerous social interaction situations, those stigmatized individuals who share a particular stigma tend to develop similar personalities. "Persons who have a particular stigma tend to have similar learning experiences regarding their plight, and similar changes in conception of self--a similar 'moral career' that is both cause and effect of commitment to a similar sequence of personal adjustments" (Goffman, 1963, p. 32). Although it is clear that AHSN-Cs are a stigmatized population and that they often possess negative psychosocial characteristics the literature has not explored the possibility that their adult life-style classifications are associated with preadulthood stigmatizing experiences.

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METHODOLOGY

This research analyzes the retrospective self-reported stigmatizing experiences of 79 AHSN-Cs interviewed by Martin (1985). The larger study took fifteen months to complete and entailed conducting two- to three-hour, tape-recorded interviews with a diverse group of subjects. The research format followed the methodology suggested by Glaser and Strauss (1967). The data were collected from persons living in three U.S. locations: a large Midwestern metropolis of over six million people; a mid-sized Southeastern city of 160,000 people; and several rural Southeastern communities of less than 5,000 persons. The interviewees were recruited from many diverse settings including ABE/GED programs, social service agencies, employment settings, street corners, and homes. Each interviewee was asked to address a series of questions regarding their: childhood, schooling, adolescence, young adulthood, family background, current family, employment history, life crises, and others.

For the purposes of this study, a content analysis was made of the data detailing each subjects' preadulthood (age 0 to 18) life experiences. Utterances indicating experiences with stigmatizing events and environments were recorded and later categorized by this researcher.

A Typology of Life-Style Classifications

Utilizing each subject's "primary means of financial support" and "the degree of socially acceptable behavior" Martin (1985) identified six broad life-style classifications: Entreprenuers, owners of private businesses; Superiors, managers of businesses or organizations; Regulars, employees in skilled or semi-skilled jobs; Suppliants, individuals with an indirect means of financial support, e.g., a spouse, parents, unemployment compensation, etc.; Marginals, recipients of public assistance; and Underclass, individuals who had consistently engaged in anti-social acts. Three categories of Underclass were identified: Underclass-Regulars, Underclass-Suppliants, and Underclass-Marginals.

The demographic characteristics of the categories revealed statistically significant differences in ways which suggest the social effects of stigma. For example, traditional stigmatized populations such as women and minorities were more likely to be Suppliants, Marginals, and Underclass. Entreprenuers, Superiors and Regulars were more likely to have higher incomes, and to have fewer people living at home. Also, significant differences in the attitudinal dispositions of the categories suggest some effects of stigma. For example, Entreprenuers and Superiors were most likely to be satisfied with their job skills and to feel comfortable communicating with others who have more education. Regulars were most likely to be dissatisfied with their lives as a whole, and dissatisfied with things in general (possibly reflecting their heightened anxiety regarding potential job loss in a transitional work environment). Marginals were most likely to be satisfied with things in general (possibly reflecting their isolation from the transitional work environment).

Research Questions

This study explored the association of antecedent stigmatizing experiences with the above life-style classifications of AHSN-Cs. Several research questions were addressed:

1. What were the types and frequencies of stigmatizing events and environments experienced by the subjects during ages 0 to 18?
2. What salient differences exist among the different classifications of AHSN-Cs in terms of the types and frequencies of stigmatizing events and environments experienced during ages 0 to 18?
3. What groupings of stigmatizing experiences and events provide the best discriminating power to both differentiate among the life-style classifications and correctly classify each subject into one of the predetermined life-style classifications?

FINDINGS

The content analysis of each subject's life-history revealed three categories of stigmatizing events and environments: parents' marital status; experiences occurring in the family and home environment; those occurring outside the home setting.

Parents' Marital Status

A disproportionately large percentage (78.5%) of the subjects mentioned that they grew up in homes in which their parents experienced marital upset or were never married. Only 21.5 percent lived in homes in which their parents remained married until they reached age 18. The proportions were equal (30.4%) for those whose parents were either divorced or widowed. Smaller proportions (11.4% and 6.3%) grew up in homes where their parents were either never married or had permanently separated.

Family Home Situation

The subjects reported three types of stigmatizing experiences or events that occurred in their homes and(or) involved members of their family:

1. Abusive Parents (35.4%). The subjects mentioned four categories of statements which were coded as "abusive parents": (a) one or both parents often drank alcohol, (b) parents argued and fought often, (c) parents or relatives beat them or physically abused them, (d) one or both parents neglected them by abandonment and(or) failed to provide financial support.
2. Disabled Family Member (10.1%). The subjects indicated the presence of one or more mentally or physically disabled family members in the home.
3. Being Poor (13.9%). The subjects mentioned "hard times", being "poor", having "nothing to wear", and similar utterances.

Experiences Outside the Home

The subjects were involved in five types of stigmatizing experiences that occurred outside their homes:

1. *Drug and(or) Alcohol Usage* (6.3%). Subjects mentioned that they used illicit drugs, e.g., marijuana, valium, cocaine, and others, and(or) consumed excessive amounts of alcohol.
2. *Prolonged Illness and(or) Physical Abominations* (15.2%). Subjects mentioned prolonged illness, e.g., asthma, agoraphobia, physical injury requiring hospitalization, and(or) physical abominations, e.g., severe skin infection.
3. *Teenage Pregnancy and(or) Marriage* (21.5%). Subjects mentioned becoming unwed teenage mothers, marrying before age 18, or both marriage and pregnancy before age 18.
4. *Involvement with Gang Violence and(or) Crime* (12.7%). Subjects mentioned joining youth gangs, being victims of gangs, and(or) committing criminal acts, e.g., stealing, strong-arm robbery, etc.
5. *Academic Difficulty* (39.2%). Subjects mentioned being "slow learners", failing courses, being expelled from school, lacking credits for graduation, involved in physical or emotional conflicts with teachers or administrators, and(or) having excessive absence from school.

Individuals mentioning experiences with any of the above types of stigma were given a coded value of one per experience with each type. Chi-square tests were conducted on the data to determine the presence or absence of the different types of antecedent stigmatizing experiences in the lives of individuals categorized into one of the life-style classifications of AHSN-Cs. For the purpose of this analysis, the six categories were collasped into three broader, more theoretically significant categories: the Entreprenuers, Superiors, and Regulars were combined into a single category (Employed, N = 20); Suppliants and Marginals were combined into another category (Unemployed, N = 50); and the different types of Underclass, N = 9, constituted the third category.

Significant differences were found to exist in four of the nine types of stigmatizing experiences and events mentioned by the subjects. The Underclass (66.7%) were most likely to have mentioned having abusive parents, compared with 36 percent of the Unemployed and 20 percent of the Employed ($X^2 = 5.93$, df = 2, $P < .10$). The Underclass (33.3%) were most likely to mention using illicit drugs and(or) excessive alcohol consumption, compared to 4 percent of the Unemployed and none of the Employed ($X^2 = 12.88$, df = 2, $P < .0016$). The Unemployed (30%) were most likely to mention teenage pregnancy and(or) marriage, compared to 11.1 percent of the Underclass and 5 percent of the Employed ($X^2 = 5.94$, df = 2, $P < .051$). The Underclass (44.4%) were most likely to mention involvement with youth gangs and(or) crime, compared to 15 percent of the Employed and 6 percent of the Unemployed ($X^2 = 10.33$, df = 2, $P < .0057$).

One-way analysis of variance was conducted on the data to determine the extent to which the three collasped categories of life-style classifications of AHSN-Cs explained the differences in the types of stigmatizing experiences encountered by the subjects. The analysis suggests that the life-style classifications explained 7.6 percent of the variance in the parent abuse experienced by 43 percent of the sample ($F = 3.142$, df = 2/76, $P < .05$). The classifications explained 6.7 percent of the variance in the drug and(or) alcohol use experienced by 9 percent of the sample ($F = 2.747$, df = 2/76, $P < .10$). Also the classifications explained 7.4 percent of the variance in the teenage pregnancy and(or) marriage mentioned by 23 percent of the sample ($F = 3.046$, df = 2/76, $P <$

.10). Finally, the classifications explained 16.4 percent of the variance in the gang violence and(or) crime mentioned by 14 percent of the subjects ($F = 7.432$, $df = 2/76$, $P < .001$).

Discriminant analysis was used to test the ability of the independent variables (i.e., the four categories of stigmatizing experiences) to discriminate between the three collapsed categories of life-style classifications. The analysis resulted in the identification of two significant functions. The two functions discriminated on the basis of two pairs of variables: (1) gang involvement/crime with abusive parents, and (2) teenage pregnancy/marriage with drug/alcohol use. The first function differentiated between the violent experiences (e.g., gang involvement/crime and abusive parents) of the Underclass and the less violent experiences of the Unemployed and Employed, and accounted for 80% of the variance explained by the four variables ($X^2 = 31.538$, $df = 8$, $P < .0001$). The second function differentiated between the teenage pregnancy/marriage and drug/alcohol use prevalent among the Unemployed and the Underclass, but less prevalent among the Employed. This function explained 19.73% of the variance explained by the four variables ($X^2 = 6.8652$, $df = 3$, $P < .0763$). Based on the two discriminating functions, 45.57% of the subjects were correctly classified into their predetermined life-style classifications.

DISCUSSION

This study suggests that individuals in the three collasped life-style categories of AHSN-Cs (i.e., Employed, Unemployed, and Underclass) had similar preadulthood stigmatizing experiences regarding their parents' marital status, having disabled family members, being poor, having prolonged illness and(or) physical abominations, and having various types of academic difficulty. Statistically significant differences were found in their experiences with four types of antecedent stigmas: abusive parents, illicit drug use and(or) excessive alcohol consumption, teenage pregnancy and(or) marriage, and involvement with youth gangs and(or) crime. The Employed AHSN-Cs were least likely to mention having abusive parents, using illicit drugs and(or) excessive alcohol consumption, or teenage pregnancy and(or) marriage, but they did mention having some involvement with youth gangs and crime. The Unemployed were most likely to mention teenage pregnancy and(or) marriage, and least likely to mention involvement with youth gangs and(or) crime. The Underclass were most likely to mention having abusive parents, using illicit drugs and(or) excessive alcohol consumption, and involvement with youth gangs and(or) crime.

The discriminant analysis suggests that the three collasped categories of AHSN-Cs are a function of (1) the violent experiences of the Underclass, compared to the less violent experiences of the Unemployed and Employed, and (2) the teenage pregnancy and(or) marriage and illicit drug use and(or) excessive alcohol consumption experienced by the Unemployed and the Underclass, but experienced less by the Employed. Although the two functions were statistically significant and correctly classified 45.57% of the subjects into their predetermined categories, an analysis of the group centroids suggests that some overlapping of the independent variables existed.

CONCLUSION

In conclusion, it appears that the different classifications of AHSN-Cs encountered similar types of antecedent stigmatizing experiences, especially early in their development. As small children, many of these experiences were beyond their personal control, e.g., parents' marital status, having disabled family members, being poor, etc. However, it appears that as they grew older they reacted differently to these frustrations. For example, the Underclass seems to have reacted to the violence of their parents by projecting their own violence outward as teenages, e.g., joining youth gangs and engaging in crime. The Unemployed seems to have reacted to their negative preadulthood experiences by engaging in sexual activities that resulted in unplanned pregnancies or by teenage marriage. Both the Underclass and the Unemployed appear to have developed a "stigma identity". The Employed appears to have reacted in a more constructive and socially acceptable manner by obtaining job skills and becoming employable. They seem to have escaped the development of a "stigma identity".

This study suggests that the negative psychosocial attributes, e.g., feelings of hostility, rage, rebelliousness, guilt, mistrust, and others that have been associated with non-persisting AHSN-Cs (Wilson, 1980) might be the reactions to present and past stigmatizing experiences. One approach to retaining these individuals in literacy classes is for practitioners to be aware of the individuals most likely to feel stigmatized (e.g., the Underclass, and Unemployed) and to alter the program structure and interpersonal interactions with these individuals in ways which mitigate the effects of stigma.

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SOME PERCEPTIONS OF ADULT READERS OF FICTION

Abstract

Sixty-five adults describe their home, school, and present fiction-reading experiences; perceptions of their teachers' purposes; and ways teachers might encourage lifelong reading habits.

English teachers intend to teach an appreciation of literature so that their students will choose to be lifelong readers of literary works. Most seem to hold the purposes for reading and studying literature outlined by Rosenblatt (1938,1978) and Purves and Beach (1972) which include becoming "lost" in a book, enlarging and enriching ones use of language, improving taste and the ability to discuss a writing critically, broadening one's perspective, gaining self understanding, and becoming aware of our cultural heritage. Those who enjoy and continue to read fiction themselves look for ways to influence children to read for pleasure all of the suggested and required pieces and most everything else that might nurture as well as interest them. However, not all children become habitual readers of literature. Many factors might be blamed for this such as the reading habits of the family, the uses of leisure time, and the principles and practices of education.

The problem that this study addresses is the lack of information regarding why adults who freely choose to read fiction do so, and especially whether instruction given in school fosters this kind of reading. Therefore, a number of such readers are interviewed for this study in such a manner that they may reveal their purposes for reading fiction and their perceptions of how their school experiences affected their reading habits.

Readers responded to request cards in libraries and bookstores and to referrals of other informants. Sixty-five adult fiction readers of all ages, in widely ranging areas of work, and in three locations were identified as habitual readers of fiction some of which could be classified as "literature." Utilizing naturalist inquiry, this study seeks through a semi-structured interview schedule to learn some of the reasons readers give for their lifelong reading habits. They recall their earliest reading experiences at home and at school. They discuss memories of later school reading assignments and the activities related to these. They tell why they read fiction now and compare this to what they perceive their teachers' purposes for them to have been. And, they make suggestions for the teaching of literature and building of lifelong reading habits.

The taped thirty- to sixty-minute interviews were transcribed, then summarized using word processing. A computer data base file was then created using categories (fields) of responses. The occurence of responses in each category was entered in this file along with summary and/or verbatrim comments as examples of these. The files were then printed through data merging with word processing, and the frequencies of responses in each catagory were then hand tabulated. Further analyses were made comparing age brackets and specific response categories.

Almost all of these adults who have continued to read fiction remember having been encouraged at home to read. Among their memories are being read to by one or both parents or other family members, having books around the house, and receiving books as gifts. Nursery rhymes are often mentioned as the pieces read to them when very young. A few titles are remembered: Bible stories; *Golden Books*; *Big, Little Books*; *Grimm's Fairy Tales*; *Winnie the Pooh*; *Charlotte's Web*; *Lad, a Dog*; *The Cat in the Hat*; *Peter Rabbit*; *The Treasury of Poetry*; *Alice in Wonderland*; *Through the Looking Glass*; and *Ping the Duck*.

Many say that their parents were readers themselves, so the children copied them by picking up books and pretending to read. Some reveal that they were only children or lived where there were no other children around. A few in the fifty-six to seventy-nine age bracket note that there were not so many distractions such as television or alternatives such as sports for girls then. These readers also observe that developments such as air conditioning have had an effect on childhood leisure time activities: A lawyer in her sixties recalls that she and her cousins would strip down to the least clothing they could, find the coolest place in or out of the house, and spend their long summer afternoons reading.

Perhaps because so many of the respondents were obtained through libraries, it could be expected that they would remember being taken to the library at an early age by their parents or being encouraged to go later on their own; the summer reading programs at the libraries are among the most frequently mentioned reading memories. These readers feel at home in the library as adults and remember having been assisted by librarians to find books which suited their interests, being rewarded and recognized for reading many books, and even being tutored in reading skills by especially concerned librarians.

Many of the readers laugh at their memories of parents letting them get out of doing their chores if they were busy reading. This symptom of the chronic-reader syndrome had often been accompanied by the other common practice of reading late into the night under the covers with a flashlight.

Some of the adults interviewed recall having been able to read before entering school. A few of these express the resulting boredom: "I'd get so bored I could scream, but I'd grit my teeth and promise myself to pay attention, but it was impossible." Most remember learning to read quickly and easily; however, a few recall the pain and disappointment of having difficulties when learning to read. Although interested in books and wanting to read, several were stuck in the redbird group wanting to get to the bluebird group, working very hard and being very proud to make it; or being stuck with the green reading box and wanting desparately to work in the red box.

Some remember the moment when "it clicked":

> I remember the actual moment when it finally came together, reading the *Dick and Jane* reader in first grade. My group was sitting in a little circle in little chairs with the teacher sort of there, and she had us read one to another, and it was not making any sense: "Dick and Jane," and how those words came. I could sort of follow what we were doing, but not really and we came to a page, and here were Dick and Jane's cat and the letters PUFF under it, and I must have been trying to do it and suddenly it came, "Puff!" It all fit together and after that I never had any trouble spelling; I never had any trouble reading.

Most remember with pleasure their earliest teachers reading to them. The few things recalled from this period include *Abar*; *Winnie the Pooh*; *Charlotte's Web*; *Black Beauty*; *Billy Whiskers*; *Chitty,*

Chitty, Bang, Bang; Wind in the Willows; Wizard of Oz; Bible stories; Aesop's Fables, and stories by Laura Ingalls Wilder and Gene Stratton Porter.

They remember having to read aloud and the pain of mistakes they made while doing so. One remembers being scolded for not being ready when called on; she had been reading ahead on the blue page thinking that would be hers to read aloud, but the substitute teacher that day didn't go in turns and called on her earlier than she had expected, so when she read the blue page everyone knew that she had not been paying attention. Another still blushes sometimes when she reads the word run; she was reading Dick and Jane aloud very well she thought until she turned the page and read "See Spot nun." She instantly corrected herself, but was horribly embarrassed over that mistake.

Throughout school few seem to have enjoyed reading aloud in class, and they suffered through hearing less able readers. A man who has worked with emotionally handicapped students sadly recalls how teachers in some of the many schools he attended as he moved about the country during those years would stop a poor reader and shout "No, no, that's not right. Now stop and think and read it right." Another recalls how easy it was for him to tell which of his classmates had come from homes where there were books.

Almost everyone has memories of required reports throughout school. Though they remember having been uncomfortable having to stand in front of the class to speak--"I was shy as a child"--they indicate that there were some benefits from this activity. One had a teacher who made notes and graded the students on the grammatical correctness of their speech, and when she finally gave a report in which her teacher could find no errors, she was overjoyed. She still remembers that as an outstanding accomplishment. Book reports are remembered as simple summaries to prove that the student had read the book. Most have the impression that they could report on books chosen from lists.

A few of the readers recall that their first experiences of critical thinking were associated with their early reading of fiction. A young real estate broker remembers that when she was very young her mother would listen to her and talk with her about her books. A biology professor recalls her mother having taken time to listen to her and to discuss sociological and behavioral patterns with her even before she went to school. Her first and second grade teachers labeled her as odd or sick, and she was quite unhappy until her third grade teacher decided that she was different but had something to offer and suggested a rather difficult book for her to read. She responded to the attention and quickly became competitive in her education. Even now she chooses fiction which is complex in style and content because she likes the challenge and the self-image of the educated person.

A sociology professor remembers,

> Our class was read a fairy tale, Snow White and Rose Red in which the heroine interacted with some bears. The teacher asked "What is unusual about this story? How does this story differ from what you know actually in real life?" The answer was "Bears don't talk; animals don't talk. At least they don't talk to humans: humans talk to humans." To me it was the most obvious thing, but she had to wade through five or six students' answers before getting to me. "Bears don't talk, teacher."

> She said, "Yes class, bears don't talk." It was the beginning of recognition on my part that the education system would value critical thinking and also that there was a distinction between fiction and reality.

Whether it was a thirty-minute after lunch quiet time or a clarification of a passage of Shakespeare, most enjoyed being read to at all ages. They also liked going to the school library, having a library in their classrooms, having particular books suggested by the teacher just for them, and having time to read during the school day. Acting out or orally reading parts in plays and stories made these pieces "more understandable" and "come alive" for most of these readers. Those who recall reading, memorizing, and reciting poetry in the early grades and in junior high days seem to do so with pleasure, but those who never mention poetry or mention it only as high school or college content seem to dislike and see little "use" for it now. However, some of these say they wish they had had more earlier, and several in each category can still recite passages of poetry memorized in school.

All but a very few of the respondents were habitual readers even in grade school; they read the following either in class or on their own: The Hardy Boys; The Bobbsey Twins; Nancy Drew; Tom Swift; The Five Little Peppers; Pippy Longstockings; The Great Escape; Penrod; Treasure Island; Red Badge of Courage; Tarzan; Horatio Alger; Zane Grey; Hans Christian Anderson; Twain; Alcott; Dickens; Cooper; Emily Dickinson; Longfellow; Wordsworth; Tennyson; Poe; The Bible; King Arthur stories; Jason and the Golden Fleece; and three read Gone With the Wind when they were in the sixth grade.

Respondents often describe their schools. Those who attended small country schools claim the benefits of overhearing the other classes and delight in the memory of having a fine teacher (or bemoan having had a poor teacher) for two or more years straight. Those in extremely large (fifty-student) parochial or public school classes miss having had more individual attention and varied activities.

These readers fall into two rather distinct groupings regarding their perceptions of their high school literature classes: those who recall dynamic teachers who demanded much of their students and those whose teachers either rigidly applied the curriculum or presented a very limited curriculum. A fifty-year old men's clothing store owner recalls an English teacher who has become a legend in the area: "She interested me in literature with Tale of Two Cities, and almost made Silas Marner interesting." A research librarian in her late fifties describes one teacher's expectations: "We had to read Shakespeare in class like we were performing it, and she would stop and add to it what she thought we needed in order to understand it." And, a forty-five housewife says "She was a ham, taking different parts and marching around the room mouthing with the record; she made it come alive--such vigor, and she loved it." Whereas, a sixty-seven year old retired typist says of her teachers, "They just rammed it into us and hoped for the best," and a twenty-one year old college senior said "he assigned a lot of short stories, but I got the feeling he didn't know what he was doing."

Literature-related activities described include reading the assignments at home then discussing them in class, reading pieces aloud and taking parts in the plays, seeing movies and hearing tapes of some selections, memorizing lines and reciting or writing them on tests, writing critiques and reporting on the readings, and writing research papers on literary topics. Lecturing is not mentioned as a teaching strategy, but some teachers are described as giving information on authors and their times, interpretations of the works, and literary terms.

Readers remember these works from their highschool days. *Silas Marner*, *The Scarlet Letter*, *Moby Dick*, *Ivanhoe*, *Beowulf*, *Antigone*, *The House of Seven Gables*, *A Modest Proposal*, *The Lord of the Flies*, *The Lottery*, *Madame Bovary*, *The Aeneid*, *Don Quixote*, *Cry the Beloved Country*, *Catcher in the Rye*, *I Never Promised You a Rose Garden*, *Franny and Zooey*, *The Prime of Miss Jean Brodie*, *Bridge over San Luis Rey*, *Gone With the Wind*, *Man Without a Face*, *Mrs. Malaprop*, *Mill on the Floss*, *The Secret Sharer*, *To Kill a Mockingbird*, *Looking Backward*, *Two Years Before the Mast*, *Westside Story*, *The Crucible*; Roland, Charlemagne, and Arthur legends; mythology, and The Bible; Homer, Chaucer, Shakespeare, Milton, Dante, Cooper, Poe, O'Henry, Thoreau, Whitman, Hugo, Troloppe, Austen, Bronte, London, Zane Grey, Dickens, Conrad, Pearl Buck, Sandburg, T. S. Eliot, Steinbeck, Hemingway, Fitzgerald, Faulkner, Bellow, Cather, Kipling, Asimov, Neil Simon, Taylor Caldwell, Thurber, Keats, Shelley, Browning, Milay, e.e. cummings, Ferlinghetti, and Robinson.

When asked why they read fiction, most say "to escape" which they further describe as "to have experiences different from my daily life," "to learn about other times and places," or "to learn how other people live and solve their problems." Some claim that there is truth in fiction and that they think they have a wider perspective on life because they read fiction. Many read "fluff" fiction at least part of the time to simply relax and avoid thinking. Most have favorite genres and authors. A few read critically to observe writing styles and uses of language. A handful concentrate on books from school and college reading lists. Many have gone back to reread assigned works, sometimes to see if they will have the same understanding of these, other times to relive the pleasure they remembered.

Almost all read because they "always have"; it is a habit. A woman who is temporarily working in a bookstore did not, however, read as a child nor was she an interested student. "My education began at twenty when I got married." Her husband reads all of the time, so she began to read in "self defense." After having gone back to school and become a business teacher, she was in a car pool with teachers who discussed their readings and encouraged her. Now she crusades for reading programs in her children's schools and reads from her teenaged sons' required reading lists. She has not yet, however, read *Moby Dick* because her sons and husband say she would not be able to understand it without guidance.

When asked what they perceive their teachers' purposes for them to have been, some portray their teachers as not having any purposes: "just doing their job, putting in their time, doing what they had to do. Many see their teachers as having pushed them through the required curriculum and reading lists to prepare them for college or to make them well rounded adults. Others remember their reading and literature teachers as being "dedicated, enthusiastic, encouraging teachers who loved to read and wanted their students to share that pleasure." There are those whose teachers said "Read anything; just read." Some of the the readers perceive that their teachers would be disappointed in the choices they presently make. Others think their teachers would be glad to know that they read for pleasure.

To nurture lifelong fiction-reading habits, they say to allow students to have choices of readings. Further, they suggest that teachers discover students' interests, find readings related to these, and provid readings from all times and places. They say to include the classics so that students will be exposed to great literature in order to have a frame of reference, be able to discuss books, and have a basis for their adult choices. But, they caution, "begin simply and get them hooked"; "the literature will take care of itself; you just have to pass it on."

To the youngest children read nursery rhymes and fairy tales (but not Grimms, "it's too wild and gory"). Include Bible stories, mythology, fantasy, tales, legends, poetry, the serial books such as The Hardy Boys and Nancy Drew, and short stories at all levels especially those "which address problems which children have."

The most frequently suggested activity is reading aloud to students. Having students read aloud is also seen as important especially for the slower readers even though this is tedious. Reading parts and acting out plays and stories is seen as fun and helpful. Some suggest that poetry be read and memorized but that choices be allowed. Teachers are asked to let students discuss and interpret what they read without the threat of being wrong: "That's an interesting way of looking at it." Or, "Let's think about that possibility." There should be more oral activities, and visual and auditory presentations of the works should be provided frequently.

Several suggest that students write about what they read telling why they chose the piece, what it meant to them, how they would change it, and otherwise talk about it instead of simply summarizing it. Some suggest that students creatively write in response to the readings by adding or changing the endings or taking other characters' viewpoints. A few advocate merging the study of literature with grammar and composition. One fifty-year old, retired chemical engineer strongly proposes that literature be taught in a historical context so that students can put the pieces in perspective.

Teachers are reminded by some to encourage and teach students to use the library. Several readers say, "Just teach them to read and to see the importance of being able to read." Many readers say that if a teacher is enthusiastic about reading, the students will be more likely to become readers. They encourage teachers to be excited and even dramatic in discussing fiction.

There would seem to be a consensus on one point: repeatedly, when the respondent is asked what teachers might do to develop lifelong fiction-reading habits, the importance of home influence is emphasized: "If the parents have not encouraged the child to read, there is little the school can do to develop an interest." They suggest that the school show parents how to encourage their children to read. One says this should be a school board project.

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INNOVATIVE LEARNING: THEORETICAL & PRACTICAL PERSPECTIVES

Pity him who makes his opinion a certainty. (Gaffney & Cashman, 1982).

Abstract

Innovative versus maintenance learning is examined. A theoretical framework for the former is suggested. Practical examples illustrate the author's experience, and conclusions are drawn.

INTRODUCTION

Some issues relating to the function of learning are examined in this paper. Fundamentally it involves a discussion as to learning in relation to ongoing developments in knowledge, technology, power and norms of conduct. That is, the challenge of dealing with a complex and changing world. The research has revolved around examining the issues in the literature to identify the problems inherent in defining and implementing innovative or anticipatory learning as part of programmes of adult education. The research falls into the category of action research as defined by Bogden and Biklen (1982). That is, its function is to collect information to bring about social change. The information in this case refers to a) justifications for innovative learning and b) descriptions for classroom practice.

Rationale

To provide an educational framework and experience to encourage students to become more aware of, and act on, their potential for self direction and control.

The role of learning is a central topic to the study of human functioning. In the past it has been defined in terms of a process of change as a result of practice and experience. Increasingly it is being regarded as an interactive process concerned with the reconceptualisation of what is known, to guide and determine experience and change (Kirschenbaum and Simon, 1974).

Context of the Study

The author is an adult educationalist and clinical psychologist. Both of these disciplines are concerned with guiding or influencing learning. Increasingly the responsibilities in these respects are widening. Adult education has become involved in individual, societal and cultural developments in the pursuit of principles relevant to global issues (Cropley, et al 1980, Coles, 1977, Lowe, 1975, Botkin, 1979). Similarly the evolution of community psychology from traditional clinical psychology has an over-all primary goal "to improve the human condition, and achieve a more just and fair society and world" (Albee, 1983).

In this presentation aspects of adult education and clinical psychology are drawn on as complementary approaches used by the author in her practice of both. Education, here, is used in the sense as put forward by Cropley (1980). That is, the influences which guide or encourage learning. The following themes emerge from the literature.

THE PROBLEM OF TIME IN LEARNING

Learning from the past

A clear common connection between educational and psychological intervention is that both have traditionally concentrated on the past or what is already known. The assumption is that learning of the past will help individuals to learn about and cope with the present and the future. The assumption seems to be based on the notion that the past will inevitably repeat itself. What can be referred to as historical determinism.

Many theories contribute to this position. For example religious and fatalist beliefs in which supreme beings or other influences, such as planetary positions may be interpreted as having total control over mankind. Biological theories, including those of hereditary inheritance, human instincts, age and gender theories are sometimes considered to be modified by environmental influences. Nevertheless, they often purport that the biological factors are predominant in determining not only physical, but social and cultural differences. Thirdly developmental and environmental theories. These suggest that we are victims of our upbringing, our economic status or other environmental conditions such as employment (or unemployment), housing, schooling, family commitments and the like.

In formal education and "scientific" psychology there is the empirical interpretation of information which focusses on the past. Facts are by definition phenomena of the past and provide a basis for what is considered to be current knowledge. Bell (1974) refers to this as "narrow positivism". Similarly academic pursuits of cause and effect focus on past events. Aetiological and epidemiological studies are examples here.

Even if individuals do not overtly follow any of the above beliefs, there is also the determinism inherent in self-assessment. That is the extent to which individuals internalize views of themselves, which in turn is linked with perceived levels of ability and potential. Thus how an individual perceives herself determines behaviour that she is prepared to try. McKenzie (1984) suggests that in relation to the world in which he (or she) is immersed the typical adult is "likely to perceive himself as a mere marker on destiny's chessboard", with the 'mass of humanity' enthralled to the ideas of fate, providence, and/or immanent historical laws.

Botkin et al (1979) call this type of learning "maintenance learning" because it aims to maintain existing systems and ways of life. It helps individuals and societies to adapt or adjust to that which already exists (Bosher, 1985).Adult education practices based on response to declared needs illustrate this process.

The human gap or the human force?

Toffler (1974) and Cowan (1983) join Botkin, Boshier and others in highlighting the problems inherent on relying on the past and present as a guide to future projections. Some focus on "the human gap". The "gap" is the distance between a mounting complexity of scientific and technological advancement, and the human capacity to cope with the accompanying rapid change in knowledge, (Botkin et al, 1979:6).

Others, such as economic, social, gender and age groups provide specific examples, of those not prepared to accept the past as a blue-print for the future. These represent, what the author refers to as the human force.

The human gap implies that being able to cope with complex changes, inevitably relies on a process of catching up with the past. The human force implies a motivation by individuals and societies to influence or anticipate the future, whatever the past has been.

Learning for the future

Among the rapid changes occurring in contemporary societies, identified by writers such as Cropley (1980:2), include those in job skills, interpersonal relationships, role definition, science and technology, and in social standards and norms. Botkin and his colleagues suggest that there is an urgent need for what they call innovative or anticipatory learning. Rather than lagging behind change or having to suffer the shock of having to adapt to unexpected change, innovative learning attempts to equip individuals with the ability to foresee or anticipate change. It also aims to help them to determine or influence change. In short, to encourage individuals to try and create their own future.

Two major problems arise regarding innovative learning. Firstly the question of how innovative learning can be implemented. Secondly from what theoretical grounding may that practice be drawn. The second aspect was examined first.

INNOVATIVE LEARNING: A THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

A bias toward the theories of humanistic psychology/adult education can provide the basis for innovative learning. The following princples are offered to illustrate the point.

(i) Locus of control

Explicit in its interpretation to implement innovative learning is that adults need a control over events of history, however limited that sense of control (McKenzie, 1984). Much of humanistic psychology is concerned with a study of how to fight the alienation from themselves that individuals may have as a result of pressures to conform and comply in an hierarchal framework. How to free an individual from defining his or herself through the perception of others. To be interdependent but not dependent. Botkin et al (1979) calls for autonomy AND integration. Autonomy to be self-reliant and confident in self-ability. Integrative to appreciate co-operation and foster mutual respect. Taken together, at societal level, these qualities underlie global solidarity.

(ii) The question of values

Botkin et al (1979) refer to values as "the enzymes of innovative learning" Humanistic adult education is concerned with human values. One of its basic premises is that human beings are inherently good, given a loving environment and freedom to develop, human beings will grow in a manner beneficial to themselves and to society in general. To that extent a persons behaviour may be influenced, but is not determined by external forces or internal directed urges of which he or she has no control. Human beings are able to and are capable of, making decisions in a positive and responsible way (Elias and Merriam, 1980).

As Karpen (1980) states, problems involved in lifelong and lifewide education are closely interwoven with questions of value orientation and the "ideal" of man. Despite positivistic movements to ignore or eradicate value judgements, values play a crucial role in decision-making. In a developmental sense Kirschenbaum and Simon (1980) list seven processes of valuing under the headings of prizing, choosing and acting, to prepare children to meet unknown challenges of the future; to make difficult value choices that lie ahead. In a changing world as previously described the processes can be seen to be relevant at any age.

(iii) The existential - phenomenological inheritance

An existential approach in humanistic psychology aims to understand a persons consciousness of being in the world (Misiak and Sexton, 1973). The phenomenological aspect is one which seeks to understand the individual from his or her own point of view. They are linked in seeking how individuals subjectively understand themselves and the world.

Innovative learning relies on an empathic identification with perceived needs of self, and other people and their situations. This involves an increasing awareness of the contexts in which meanings are internalised and expressed, (Botkin et al, 1979).

(iv) Human potential for psychological and social development

Humanistic psychology propounds the theory that all individuals have the potential to develop both in a personal and social sense. Futuristic, anticipatory innovative learning is an essential part of the process of developing potential and vice versa. It provides an incentive for imagining or anticipating a realization of both individual potential and that of the human race. In the absence of such visions McKenzie (1978) contends "the future merely happens".

INNOVATIVE LEARNING: SOME PRACTICAL CONSIDERATIONS

Programmes involving innovative learning practice apply at all levels. These range from dealing with global issues such as promoting world peace, through cultural and sub-cultural learning programmes for example those described at the 1979 new Delhi Conference on non-formal education (Commonwealth Secretariat 1980). Also at a small group and individual level.

Translating innovative learning ideals into practice, calls on many of the princples underlying lifelong education. The following describes some innovative learning strategies drawn from the experience of the author in curriculum and programme development from her research. To project its authenticity it is written in the first person.

(i) Participation

Participation in our self and social existence is essential to innovative learning. No book or paper relating to the education of adults ignores the principle of participation of students in the learning process. In giving input, ten minutes is the longest that I am prepared to go without student participation (McIntosh, 1982).

Creative participation emphasizes detecting and formulating problems, not merely problem solving. Innovative learning is by definition interactive. This learning from students is as relevant as the reverse in deciding aims, objectives, content etc. of courses. I have been using a thematic approach to the planning of my syllabus (McIntosh, 1982). That is, I identify themes of study that I am prepared to offer and students are invited to develop their own curriculum within that theme. There are problems in this approach usually when students are unused to acknowledging their ability and right to have a say in their own education.

I use learning contracts in all of my classes - verbal ones in "one-off" sessions. At a micro-level this is one technique in which people can exercise a view of the future, albeit initially probably only covering a few weeks or less. The theory from which contracts are drawn is behaviourist psychology. Where I fit in to a humanistic framework is that the contracts reflect the subjective experience including that of affect of the students, allowing individualised strategies for achieving their aims. An example of this which defies behavioural analysis or interpretation is of a student in a class on "The Psychology of Self". She wrote as her aim "To get closer to God". I explained to her that having no religious affiliation myself, I was not sure that her aims and mine could ever be congruent. However as the course developed she declared that through getting to know herself better and making her own life plans, she was getting closer to God.

(ii) Some approaches to innovative learning

Any student activity and formal input with emphases on projective techniques for future practice are relevant here. McDaniel (1974) lists 16 types of materials which will best prepare students for life in 2001

Innovative learning is very difficult to evaluate. Retrospective studies are inappropriate even if major changes have occurred to someone after educational and/or clinical intervention. Perhaps if projections are declared and put away and picked up again at a later date, some light will be thrown on the future- present link. Some science fiction and early horror films have shown remarkable projections in health and medical practice There is an increasing amount of evidence to show that participation in innovative learning is essential as a consciousness - raising activity using others as models. Boshier (1985) declares that adult educators are important architects of the future. Architects in Britain have designed buildings to last indefinitely. Social, cultural and other 'people' factors however are constantly changing. The notion of innovative learning addresses itself to this problem.

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NEW STUDENTS AND RETURNED STUDENTS

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ABSTRACT: Two groups of adult students, those new to higher education and those who started as pre-adults, are compared for factors affecting persistence to degree-completion.

Problem:

Much of the speculative literature on adult students in higher education describes a population of students new to college or university--a second-chance, upwardly mobile group. The term re-entry is often used to describe students, usually women, who dropped out of the formal education system at a fairly young age and are really entering higher education for the first time rather than re-entering.

Many of the adult students in university are actually returnees. In Canada, by the late seventies, over half of university students over 25 had been students before (Statistics Canada, 1979).

Studies of adult post-secondary students tend to be limited to first-year students or students in special adult programs (Cross, 1981). These give a picture of a group more representative of the population at large than traditional-age higher education students. Some other studies--for example, surveys of part-time students at all levels (Levy-Coughlin Partnership, 1981; Humphreys and Porter, 1978) or of adult students who graduate (Hopper and Osborn, 1975) give a different picture. These studies indicate that many of the adult students, and perhaps the most persistent and successful of them, are not new to the system.

The research reported here was an attempt to study differences between new students and returned students in a Canadian university, and in particular their persistence over a long period to degree completion.

Methodology:

All undergraduate students 25 years of age and older at Simon Fraser University in British Columbia in the fall of 1973 were included in the population for this study. (Simon Fraser has the highest proportion of students age 25 and over among B.C.'s three public universities.)

The students records of 1435 adult students, male and female, were used for part of the analysis. A questionnaire was mailed to a sample of 342 male students, aged 25 to 34 in the fall of 1973, with a disappointing response rate of 31.0%. (106 questionnaires were returned. A subsequent telephone survey of 24 non-respondents indicated that the main problem was lack of success in finding correct addresses for individuals.) The survey was limited to males, partly because the study of adult women students has been quite popular.

Student records data were used in simple univariate and bivariate analysis of the effects of age, sex, grade point average, and stopping-out on degree-completion. In addition, records of respondents were combined with questionnaire answers in analysis of the survey data.

From the survey respondents, two groups were defined as Re-entry if they had initially enrolled prior to age 25 and had not been continuously enrolled after that (had stopped out for at least one year) and Adult Entry if they had initially enrolled after age 24. (In fact, there was a bimodal distribution, modes at 18 and 27/28, with very few respondents who initially registered between ages 22 and 25.) It was hypothesized that Re-entry students would be more persistent to degree-completion than Adult Entry students.

Data from the mailed survey were used to test for differences between Adult Entry and Re-entry students, and between degree-completers and non-completers, using multiple regression and discriminant analysis.

Findings:

The largest group among adult students at Simon Fraser in the fall of 1973 were males aged 25 - 34. They were also by far the most likely of adult students to complete degrees. Age seemed to make less difference in persistence and participation for women. (Women over 34 were a larger group than men over 34 and were slightly more likely to complete degrees than men over 34 and women 25 to 34.) Women were more likely to stop out and return, and complete degrees if they had stopped out. For men, apparently, continuing education after the early thirties is not easy; a decision to leave was more often a decision to drop out. (See Table 1.)

Degree-completion was not related to grade point average, except that those very low G.P.A.s were less likely to complete.

While survey data failed to support the hypothesis of greater persistence by Re-entry than Adult Entry students, student records data did indicate a very high rate of non-continuation by those registered for the first time Fall, 1973. (Only 13.3% of those who registered initially in the third trimester of 1973 completed degrees, compared to nearly 50% of the remainder.)

	Males		Females	
Age:	25-34	35+	25-34	35+
Degree	48.8%	37.8%	39.9%	43.0%
No degree	51.2	62.2	60.1	57.0
	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
(N=)	(809)	(82)	(386)	(158)

Table 1: Degree completion by sex and age.

Of the 106 respondents to the mailed survey, 65 were degree-completers and 41 were non-completers. Multiple regression resulted in a four-variable equation accounting for 28% of the variance ($R=.533$, $R^2=.284$). The four variables were (in order of contribution) Satisfaction (with university experience), Level of Aspiration (desire for further upward occupational mobility), Re-entry vs. Adult Entry (working in the opposite to hypothesized direction), and Grade Point Average. Discriminant analysis using the Wilks method (.05 level of significance for variable inclusion) resulted in a six-variable equation accounting for approximately 29% of the variance.* The variables in the discriminant equation were the same as for the regression equation, which is logical as the discriminant function is a regression equation with group membership as the dependent variable, and two additional ones: Early-career (upward) Mobility and Time at University. The discriminant equation successfully classified 74.5% of the cases, slightly more non-completers than completers (78.0% to 72.3%).

It was possible to classify 55 of the respondents as Re-entry students (29 degree-completers) and 44 as Adult Entry (32 completers). With both multiple regression and discriminant analysis, more of the variance was accounted for with the Adult Entry than the Re-entry group. (See Tables 2 and 3.)

Stepwise selection results in three-variable multiple regression equations for both groups, accounting for 33% (R^2) of the variance for the Adult Entry students and 27% for Re-entry. Both equations included Satisfaction and Level of Aspiration. However, the first variable (accounting for the largest proportion of the explained variance) is different in each case. For Adult Entry, (importance of) Work-related Problems is the first variable in the regression equation, while for Re-entry, Grade Point Average is the most important.

Discriminant analysis results in a three-variable equation accounting for 45.4% of the variance ($1-\lambda$) with Adult Entry students and a five-variable equation accounting for 36.9%

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* Based on 1-lambda, $\lambda=.712$, or canonical correlation (.537) squared.

Summary Table

Variables (by order of entry):	Multiple R	R^2	Adjusted R^2	F	Significance
Adult Entry:					
Work-related Problems	.422	.178	.159	9.11	.004
Satisfaction	.508	.258	.222	7.14	.002
Level of Aspiration	.576	.331	.281	6.61	.001
Re-entry:					
Grade Point Average	.341	.116	.099	6.82	.012
Satisfaction	.452	.204	.173	6.53	.003
Level of Aspiration	.522	.273	.230	6.25	.001

Table 2: Multiple Regression, Adult Entry and Re-entry Compared (Dependent Variable: Degree Completion. N = 106.)

Adult Entry

Independent Variable:	Wilks' Lambda
Work-related Problems	.692
Satisfaction	.582
Social Mobility	.546
Canonical Correlation	.674
Significance	.000 (χ^2 =18.44, d.f.=3)
Correct Classification	84.1%

Re-entry

Independent Variable:	Wilks' Lambda
Level of Aspiration	.864
Satisfaction	.775
Grade Point Average	.697
Mother's Education	.676
Time of Decision	.631
Canonical Correlation	.607
Significance	.002 (χ^2 =18.27. d.f.=5)
Correct Classification	72.2%

Table 3: Variables in Discriminant Function for Adult Entry and Re-entry, and Summary Statistics. (Dependent Variable: Degree Completion. N = 106.)

with Re-entry; the equation for Adult Entry is both more efficient and more parsimonious. In addition, classification was more successful for Adult Entry, with no difference between degree-completers and non-completers, while for Re-entry, classification is less successful and especially so for non-completers. (Correct classification for degree-completers among the Re-entry students is 78.6%, compared to 65.4% of non-completers.)

Persistence by Re-entry students was more affected by variables which might be considered educational (G.P.A., Time of Decision, Mother's Education), while persistence by Adult Entry students was more affected by situational or career-related variables (Work-related Problems, Social Mobility).

Conclusions:

Study of student records of one group of adult university students indicates that, while for women completing a degree might be considered a long-range, even lifetime ambition, for most men it is apparently something that must be completed by the early or mid-thirties.

Using a combination of student records and a post-mortem survey, persistence to degree-completion by two groups of male adult students was studied, indicating that new (Adult Entry) and returned (Re-entry) students are affected by some similar and some different variables. There is some evidence, as well, from student records and telephone survey of non-respondents, that the differences may have been greater if the response rate had been higher, particularly from non-completers and those with very short times as adult students.

While adult students registering for the first time are at high risk for dropping out, once these Adult Entry students are no longer new, once they have some experience, they are committed and usually successful. In fact, they may have fewer burdens from previous (perhaps unsuccessful) experience in higher education than Re-entry students, and thus fewer disadvantages.

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Influences on Self-Concept Change and Career Development in Black Re-Entry Women

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Self-concept change was linked to peer and faculty roles ranging from quasi-parental to friendship. Career planning seems closely linked to contextual thought and contingency planning.

Background

The study described in this presentation is a retrospective investigation detailing the experiences of seventeen Black women returning to college after a lengthy absence from formal education. The study details the relationships among self-concept, career development and participation in higher education and examines the role of the educator of adults in facilitating change. It is based on an inductive analysis of semi-structured interviews with graduates of an urban, inner-city public college with a primarily Black, female adult student body who had participated in Cooperative Education. Through Co-op, a program combining career education with work placements, these women were actively involved with career concerns during the period they attended college.

Career education often serves as a vehicle for facilitating change. In this examination, analysis of descriptive data from the participants may assist the educator in identifying the processes that facilitate this change and in understanding the moments in which change occurs. As some of these women move from the lowest socioeconomic status into the middle class, a process of analyzing and reconceptualizing the sociocultural patterns of their lives seems to occur.

Prior to college enrollment, most of the women in this study were involved in marriage and child rearing. They reported the period between high school and college as one of little growth. Most had left school with no career commitment. These women were between the ages of 30 and 60. As was also noted in Cafarella and Friedman's (1985) study, the socialization of women during this particular period in time was a strong influence on the choices they made. Although Black women are more likely to combine home and work roles, there is evidence of a lack of career information and career planning (Smith, 1981, 1982). The combined effects of limited employment prospects for women and minorities at the time this group entered the labor market, early socialization and lack of career advisement would tend to combine to create a concept of

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work not as a career, but as a series of jobs taken out of necessity. Although some common themes can be traced through these women's careers, they reported actual job choices to be governed primarily by circumstances.

Family, community, peer and financial pressures made both the decision to return to school and continuing attendance difficult for many of the women. For women who were married while in attendance, personal growth and change, absence from the home and involvement in schoolwork became major concerns and in many cases destroyed marriages. Reasons for enrollment were tied closely to desires for increased independence and competence. Most of the women were involved in reentering the labor market or upgrading their employment. Some felt that college would help them understand themselves and help them be better parents.

Nature of Change

Timing and intensity of self-concept change and influences on self-concept varied in relation to self-concept prior to college. There was agreement that influences on self-concept change included faculty, peers and family as well as specific events.

Although college enrollment marked a period of change for all the women in this study, there were great variations in the level and impact of this change. Some of the women reported that they enrolled in college because they were involved in a major life change. Others reported not being aware that they were changing until they had been in attendance for a period from several months to over a year. It seemed that, for the latter group, a certain amount of distancing fromt the pre-college patterns of their lives and some gains in self-esteem may have been necessary before any realization of intrapsychic change could occur.

Two groups were identified in terms of nature and intensity of self-concept change. The first, and larger, group reported strong early self-concepts and a great deal of family support and reinforcement through childhood. Those women who had been married reported strong positive feelings about themselves prior to marriage. They felt that marriage or lack of career opportunities had a temporary negative impact on self-esteem; some found their marriages infantalizing. This group felt that college allowed them to gain specific skills, prove their capabilities and reestablish positive self-esteem.

A second, smaller group consisted of women who reported low self-esteem through childhood to college attendance. Although some of these women had consistently been community leaders, they never seemed to have translated this into self-worth. They reported mixed, largely negative, messages from parents, authority figures and spouses. Some had been victims of abuse. These women reported the greatest amount of change during college. They attributed this change to support from faculty and peers, combined with a gradual recognition of their own abilities to take control and master situations. They felt that college helped them to grow up and to develop positive feelings about themselves. This group seemed more involved in using the college experience to rework basic identity issues.

Facilitators

Faculty and peers were the most frequently mentioned influences on change. Families were the third source of support. Facilitators were chosen for personal characteristics rather than gender or academic area. This agreed with Schockett's (1984) findings that gender and subject area were not significant factors in mentor relationships and that psychosocial functions were stressed over vocational.

There appeared to be two clear typess of faculty involvement with students, one as information provider and model for colleagueal relationships, the second as cheerleader-pusher. There semed to be a continuum of involvement style between these two extremes which I call the mentor-mother continuum. The type of relationship sought out seems to be related to (1) the degree of positive or negative self-concept possessed by the student, (2) the availability of either professional or middle-class role models in the student's environment and (3) the degree to which the student was involved in intrapsychic change during college attendance. This seems in keeping with Bearden (1984), who, after identifying initiation, cultivation, separation and redefinition as the four stages in the mentoring process, notes that during the cultivation stage mentor roles may include teacher, coach, guide, adviser, friend, counselor and critic.

Students with low self-esteem and lack of exposure to either professional or middle-class role models in either home or work situations tended to seek out mentors who, whether male or female, fulfilled a quasi-parental role. These women generally experienced childhood conflicts which led to poor or conflicted self-concepts. They consistently used growth metaphors in describing their college experience. When they talked about returning to the college, this group often described it as returning home. An Eriksonian model of identity development (Erikson, 1957) may best describe their college experience. They reported being involved in reworking relationships with parents and families, and some appeared to create a substitute parent, more accepting of their intellectual development, within the college environment. Mentors for this group were more like "mothers" - someone who would be concerned about the everyday details of life and reprimand when behavior was unacceptable or nonproductive.

Nearer the midpoint of the continuum were students who looked to faculty for support as needed, but relied primarily on themselves for motivation. There was a sense of shared responsibility for the educational process but an ultimate sense of faculty as authority. At the other end of the continuum, students saw faculty as a source of peer relationships. There was an aspect of modeling in these interactions and a free exchange of information between individuals who viewed each other as equals.

There were specific characteristics perceived as comprising a facilitative teaching style. Many echoed Knowles' (1980) list, including creativity in thinking and methodology, enthusiasm, a thorough grounding in the subject matter, friendliness, humor and interest in the students. Many of the women interviewed mentioned sharing personal life experiences or bringing in related experiences as positive qualities in professors - the ability to interrelate life and text. Also recognized as important was the ability to teach on more than one level and to utilize a wide range of techniques. Availability, a general willingness to help and the ability to see the humorous side of things were also frequently mentioned.

The final factor consistently mentioned as facilitating learning was challenge. Students expected to be pushed to test their limits in the classroom and spoke in glowing terms of professors having reputations for being "tough," feeling that they learned the most from these people. This emphasis on challenge and rigor seemed counter to much of the adult education literature, which in stressing ensuring success for high-risk students and reaching students at their level, seems to imply a watered-down curriculum. Educational challenge provided within a supportive environment appears to have been a strong factor in positive self-concept increases for many of these women.

Family influences ranged from totally supportive to destructive. Some families ostracized the student or set restrictions on child care and other support. When support was present, it was both practical and emotional. Parents helped with child care; husbands learned to cook and clean. Also, the dynamics between the women and their children often seemed to improve. Boulding (1980) notes that children's positive contributions to fmily life are often overloked. She found that children have a great capacity for empathy and for nurturing adults. Most women reported support from their children; some were engaged in friendly rivalry to see who could get better grades.

Peers were the third strong influence. Friendship patterns changed as some friends were unable to cope with or disapproved of the changes in the student. Swann and Hill (1977) note that, in order for self-concept change to be lasting, that change must be reinforced. For many of these women, that reinforcement came from their peers within the college. This is in contrast to Chickering's (1974) finding that commuting students tend to have fewer friends and less involvement on campus, but in keeping with Ladner (1972), who found peer relationships to be important sources of information and support for Black adolescent women. It would seem that this pattern would carry over into adulthood. Support ranged from simple concern when someone was absent to sheltering a fellow student who had problems at home. Most of these women were supportive of each other because they recognized their own struggles in each other. They knew what it was like to juggle school, husband, children and work. They knew about abuse or marriages destroyed by school or being cut off by welfare. United in a common struggle, they pushed each other to go on.

Career Development

As self-concept change was viewed within the context of career change, the interviews provided clues to influences on the career development process not adequately described in major career theories. Although current career development practice emphasizes flexibility, transfer of skills and openness to multiple careers, few theories reflect reliance on these characteristics. The following hypotheses represent an initial attempt at identifying themes in the career development of Black women:

1. That the career development is less linear than suggested by Super(1957) and others. The interaction of intrapersonal and situational factors may be responsible for movement along a career continuum, and may necessitate sidetracks and what appear to be regressions.
2. That contingency planning is basic to Black women's career planning. In particular, the interactive effects of home and career roles and the need to function effectively in both spheres shapes career decisions.
3. That career patterns which appear random at first analysis may in fact provide the basis for identifying alternate patterns more reflective of current trends. Black, poor and marginal workers and women in general have been dismissed from serious consideration in the past because their patterns did not reflect the male norm.
4. That women's career planning, rather than being disconnected, represents a contextual or dialectic mode of thinking about careers which may be preferable for both men and women.
5. That the interactive effect of work and maternal roles is basic to women's career planning and should be further investigated as the basis for career patterns.
6. That the involvement of Black men in both instrumental and expressive roles may serve as a model for the increasing number of dual career families.

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WHATEVER HAPPENED TO THE T-GROUP?
or
ISSUES IN THE POLITICS OF EXPERIENTIAL LEARNING

ABSTRACT:

1. Personal experience, political action and adult education

This paper begins with a statement about my own interest in experiential learning, which has grown out of aspects of my own life experience:

(i) as someone from a working-class background, assimilated into middle-class culture through education, but concerned at the neglect of personal ("anecdotal") accounts of working-class experience in much sociological analysis of social class;

(ii) as a feminist, wishing to incorporate the spirit of the axiom that "the personal is political" into my professional life;

(iii) as a teacher of sociology to adults, wishing to draw upon the experience of my students and to move beyond traditional models of pedagogic practice based on the lecture method.

2. T-group training in the U.K.: a brief history

I will go on to sketch the way in which experiential learning methods based on the T-group laboratory have been applied in the U.K. over the last 40 years. I will argue that the potential for exploring social scientific concepts through such methods has been largely unexplored, and that their radical origins have become obscured as a result of their association with management training and "personal growth".

3.The Mini-Economy: a case study in experiential learning

I will describe some of the research I have been engaged in over the last three years, with particular reference to the Mini-Economy, an experiential learning event which I organised in Leeds, Yorkshire in 1985.This event was designed to enable the exploration of the relationship between interpersonal behaviour and economic and social structures, and built on the model of the Mini-Society laboratories held in Sweden in the early 1970's. One participant summed up what happened during the Mini-Economy in this way: "During the first 24 hours we managed to condense 5 centuries of social change: we lived through capitalism, revolution, socialism and feudalism".

4. Conclusion: future directions for experiential learning

The Mini-Economy was sponsored by the Group Relations Training Association, a network of groupwork practitioners , of which I am currently national chairperson. In 1987 the GRTA will be seeking to promote the theory and practice of experiential group relations, through its 15th Annual Training Laboratory and a major conference marking 40 years of T-groups. I will conclude by sketching some of the issues which will need to be addressed if experiential learning approaches are to achieve more widespread currency within adult education in the future.

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AN ASSESSMENT OF INDUSTRY'S TRAINING RESOURCES AND THEIR DESIRED INVOLVEMENT WITH EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTIONS IN THE SOUTHWESTERN REGION OF THE UNITED STATES

Abstract

The purpose of the research presented in this paper was to provide information to help postsecondary educational institutions provide quality, cost effective education in the American workplace.

Introduction

Considering that motivation and behavior have a direct effect on an individual's job performance, incentive and motivators are key issues related to the overall effectiveness of an employee's contribution to an organization (Hersey and Blanchard, 1976; Herzberg, Mausner, Synderman, 1959; McClelland, Atkinson, Clark, Lowell, 1961; and Weinstein, 1976). Significant changes in the business environment such as a major recession in the United States, a sharp decline in worker productivity, and a vast increase in foreign competition have been occurring during the midst of a transition from an industrial to an information society (Morgan, 1975; Naisbitt, 1982; and Schuster, 1978). These changes, combined with corporate incentives and motivators, have been placing an increased emphasis on employee development and training (Nadler, 1976).

With an impressive amount of energy, including time and money, that corporations spend on education each year, employer-sponsored education touches the lives of a significant number of workers throughout the United States (Lusterman, 1977). Currently, companies have been reassessing the most effective and economic approach in providing quality, cost effective education (Lee, 1982).

Statement of the Problem

In recent years, linkages between industry and educational institutions have become more prevalent, particularly in the area of training. As a result, educational institutions are now making an impact on employee education in corporate America (Craig and Evers, 1981; Peterfreund, 1982; and Schuster, 1978). However, information about the types of linkages which are most effective are needed by educational institutions desiring to develop such linkages. Searches in the Educational Research Index Code, leading journals, and inquires of the national headquarters of the American Society for Training and Development (ASTD) evidenced a lack of information, and did not reveal a study dealing with the specific types of linkages presented in this paper.

It would behoove educators to take a closer look at the attitude of training managers in order for higher education to incorporate certain practices recommended by persons in industry (Dilks and Calvert, 1984; and Lee, 1984). Therefore, the main purpose of this study was to provide information to help develop more effective linkages between educational institutions and business and industry. More specifically, the objectives of this study included: 1) to report the extent of industry's use of training resources during 1980, 1983, and 1986, 2) to examine training managers' preferred training structures and training sources, and 3) to determine training managers' willingness to utilize postsecondary educational institutions to provide training programs.

Methodology

Data was collected by surveying 522 subjects who functioned as training managers from September, 1983 through January, 1984 in the southwestern region of the United States including Arkansas, Louisiana, New Mexico, Oklahoma, and Texas. The sample was selected from a list of 2,000 trainers provided by the national headquarters of the American Society for Training and Development (ASTD) on the criteria of a) job title, b) job description, and c) membership in ASTD. The questionnaire survey instrument was divided into four parts which provided information on a) job title, function, and urban location of the respondent, b) the number of employees and company type, c) the size and function of the training staff, and d) to what extent training managers would be willing to utilize postsecondary educational institutions for training. The overall response rate was 71.6%.

Analyses included compilation of data by frequency distribution and percentages, crosstabulation, the Chi-Square statistic, and the Spearman rank-difference coefficient. The methods of compilation of data by frequency distribution and percentages were employed to reduce data to a tabular form in order to describe various characteristics of the certain study objectives. Crosstabulation was used to tabulate and compare specific variables examined in the study. By using the Chi-Square statistic, particular variables were analyzed to determine if significant relationships exist between variables. Based on a review of the current literature pertaining to this field, the assumption was made that the distribution of the data was not normal. Therefore, the Chi-Square statistic was used to compare the relative distribution of two variables. The expectation was that the variables would be equally distributed. The Spearman rank-difference coefficient was used to analyze data which was placed in rank order. Since the distribution was not normal data, the assumption that a ratio existed could not be made. Therefore, the rank difference correlation measured the amount of association between variables and indicated whether a positive or a negative correlation existed. For this study, the established significance level was at the .05 level.

Data Analysis and Findings

For purposes of this study, the data analysis involved variables in specific categories. These categories were training sources, training structures, and types of training. Training sources included: 1) universities, 2) community colleges, 3) technical/vocational institutes, 4) consultants, 5) pre-packaged programs, and 6) in-house training. Postsecondary educational institutions as training sources refer, respectively, to the first three items. Training structures were: 1) on-site credit courses, 2) on-site non-credit courses, 3) seminars, 4) workshops, and 5) custom courses. Training types refer to: 1) professional development training and 2) technical training.

The first objective of this study reported the extent of the use of training resources during 1980, 1983, and 1986. The amount of money spent according to company type was analyzed. Companies were classified according to the United States Government's Standard Index Code and grouped according to the total dollars spent. In descending order of expenditures, they were as follows: 1) Transportation, 2) Oil, 3) Manufacturing, and 4) Education. These companies spent between $100 million and $800 million during 1983 on training. The following companies spent between $10 million and $100 million: 5) Government, 6) Communications, and 7) Other (categories not listed). A company that spent between $5 million and $10 million was 8) Technology (Computers, Electronics, Research). Those companies spending between $1 million and $5 million included: 9) Finance (Banking, Insurance), 10) Health Care, 11) Retail/Distributors, 12) Service Organizations, and 13) Consultant/Vendors. The lowest ranking categories in overall training expenditures were: 14) Construction and 15) Hospitality, each spending less than $1 million.

According to company size, the largest amount of money was spent by companies with 3,000 or more employees. Companies in the 1,000 to 3,000 employee range spent the next largest amount. The company category with the least number of employees (0 to 250) spent more than the average amount of money spent by larger companies with an employee range of 500 to 1,000 and 250 to 500, respectively.

Budget allocations in 1980, 1983, and projections for 1986 for professional development training were analyzed by percentages for each of the training sources. In 1983, the largest amount (56.69%) was spent on in-house training. Over 25% was spent on consultants (13.63%) and pre-packaged programs (12.2%). The remaining portion was spent on universities (9.86%), other categories not listed (4.85%), community colleges (1.94%), and technical/vocational institutes (.91%). The training budgets for professional development in 1980, 1983, and projections for 1986 showed no significant difference. When expenditures for each of the individual training sources were analyzed according to each year, results showed no significant difference.

In order to examine the total training budget for 1980, 1983, and projections for 1986, the minimum, maximum, and average number of dollars were reported. Results showed that the projections for 1986 indicated an increase in the total amount of dollars spent over the total amount spent for training in 1983. Tabulations also indicated an increase in total training budget expenditures in 1983 over 1980. The percentage of dollars spent on each category of 1) professional development training and 2) technical training was reported in comparison to the total number of dollars spent on all training in 1983. Fourteen out of fifteen company types spent more money on technical training than professional development. The only company type to spend more (98%) on professional development training was Education. Ten out of fifteen company types spent over 80% of the total training budget on technical training.

The second objective of this study was to examine training managers' preferred training structures and training sources. Training structures that training managers wanted the following training sources to provide: universities, community colleges, and technical/vocation institutes, were analyzed. In each of the analyses, respondents rated the structures as "1" being the most preferred, and "5" as the least preferred. Average rankings of all training managers showed seminars, workshops, and custom courses as the most preferred structures. In order to examine the training structure training managers most desire according to company type, a crosstabulation was performed among the variables of a) the individual company type, b) each educational source, and c) each training structure. When data is placed in rank order, the result also showed seminars, workshops, and custom courses were generally preferred over on-site credit courses and on-site non-credit courses.

A comparison was made between the total number of persons on each respective respondent's training staff in 1983 and if this had an effect on whether training managers were willing to utilize structures provided by educational institutions. In order to determine the existence of a relationship, the Spearman rank correlation was used to measure if a positive or negative relationship between the two variables was indicated. Results showed no significant relationships existed.

A comparison between training managers' perceptions of the most effective training source and how budgets were allocated in 1983 was analyzed. In the survey, training managers were asked to respond by listing the number (1 through 7) of their opinion of the most effective training source. They were also asked to indicate how much of the training budget is allocated to each source. The mean response indicated that 62% of the respondents believed that the largest amount of money was spent on what they perceived to be the most effective source for professional development training. Results showed that 68% of the respondents indicated that a vast majority of the budget was spent on the training source identified as being the most effective for technical training. For both professional development and technical training, training managers preferred in-house training and believed it to be the most effective source.

The third objective of this study reported training managers' willingness to utilize postsecondary educational institutions to provide training program structures. A comparison of the educational level of the training manager and his or her willingness to use structures and his or her willingness to use training structures provided by educational institutions was examined. Training managers ranked structures from "1" to "5," with 1 as the most desirable and 5 as the least desirable structure. By using the Chi-Square statistic, it was determined that a significant relationship among the educational level of the training manager and universities offering custom courses for technical training existed. Over 50% of the respondents with a college degree rated this combination as 2 or above. A significant relationship between the variables of the educational level of training managers and their desire to utilize community colleges as a service existed. This correlation showed over 50% of respondents indicated that the higher the educational level, the more willing he or she was to utilize community colleges to offer on-site credit courses for technical training.

A comparison of top managements' support for professional development training between the years of 1983 and 1986, and the willingness of training managers to use training structures provided by educational institutions was analyzed. Training managers were asked to choose whether top managements' support would likely increase, decrease, or remain the same. Respondents rated the structures from "1" to "5" for each of the respective educational institutions. An analysis using the Chi-Square statistic indicated a significant relationship between the increased support of top management toward professional development training and the willingness of training managers to utilize community colleges as a service provider for offering the seminar structure to provide professional development training. Over 75% of the respondents rated this combination 2.5 or above, thereby yielding a positive correlation.

By using the Chi-Square statistic, the following variables preferred by training managers were analyzed: educational training source, training structures, and types of training. Among these variables, the significant relationships showed educational institutions as a low priority when compared to training sources such as 1) in-house training, 2) consultants, and 3) pre-packaged programs.

Conclusions

1. Although training expenditures for 1980, 1983, and 1986 for professional development training showed virtually no change, total training budgets from 1980 to 1986 have increased and this increase is expected to continue. Therefore, according to training managers, corporations will expand training budgets in order to emphasize technical training for employees.

2. Training managers consistently indicated a preference for the training structures of seminars, workshops, and custom courses to be provided by educational institutions. When a representative from an educational institution markets services to the corporate community, he or she should be aware of what types of structures are found most desirable by training managers, and why these structures are considered to be effective. Generally, credit and formal types of non-credit courses were considered a low priority. Because these types of non-credit courses are most commonly associated with higher education, this fact could account for industry's apparent lack of utilization of colleges and universities as a viable option in providing training services.

3. Training managers viewed programs within their own organization, such as in-house training, as the most effective training source. They also spent training budgets in direct proportion to the training source they perceived to be the most effective for both professional development and technical training.

4. While training managers did not view postsecondary educational institutions as high priority service providers, the higher the educational level of the manager, the more likely he or she was willing to utilize educational institutions to provide certain types of training.

5. Considering that total training budgets are continuing to increase with a marked emphasis on technical training, coupled with industry's need for more training in order to facilitate the shift from an industrial to an information society, it may be concluded that companies will be searching for innovative and effective means of accomplishing these transitional training needs. Providing that educational institutions will be flexible and provide quality, state-of-the-art training which companies will require, this could herald an opportunity for both the public and private sector to establish linkages which will continue to be mutually beneficial.

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EDUCATION IN THE WORKPLACE: RESEARCH ON PREPARING WORKERS FOR PARTICIPATION IN COMPANY DECISION-MAKING

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Abstract: Seventy workers, managers, supervisors and consultants in seven companies were studied in this qualitative research aimed at developing educational guidelines for worker participation programs in industry.

As a tactic for overcoming problems of productivity and quality which threaten America's competitive position in the world, companies across America are actively engaged in involving workers in company decision making (Mills,1983). The media has focussed attention on such programs as Quality Circles (QC) which was imported from Japan, Quality of Working Life (QWL), Employee Involvement (EI), and numerous homegrown efforts to tap into the talents and know-how of the workers at all levels of the companies for their ideas on for improving both the quality of the products and the quality of the work life of the people in the company (Walton, 1979).

The idea of worker involvement appears simple, and is very compelling as a strategy for firms which are in trouble or see themselves being threatened by competition. Who cannot see the advantage of having a committed and responsible workforce interested in efficiency and effectiveness? Who cannot envision the financial and human benefits if the enormous potential of a motivated and concerned workforce is unleashed? Wouldn't the idea of worker participation eliminate many of the obstacles which now make for significant and expensive inefficiencies in the operation of businesses?

However,once the initial excitement of the concept has passed and a more sober analysis can be made it is soon clear that the preparation of all employees at a worksite for a worker participation program is a major task. If a manager or executive planner in a company or a union was to carefully think through the problem as an education issue -- an issue of educating adult workers for momentous change in the way they do their job and the way they relate to others in the company -- then the problem is massive. A diligent planner would find little in the educational or industrial training literature to guide the educational effort at helping workers and other employees prepare for the changed role implicit in worker participation in company decision-making.

Historically, workers have not participated in the decision-making processes of companies; most companies are organized hierarchically and workers are not part of the decision-making about the company and its future. In larger firms, the prevalent pattern is an union/management contract directing employee patterns of behavior which clearly puts the company and its workers in adversarial positions on a regular basis (Guest, 1979).

The Methodology for Studying Programs Which Train Workers for Participation.

This research had as its key objective the development of a set of recommendations for educating and supporting worker participation in company decision-making. The design called for a study of worker participation programs already underway in seven companies in the Northeast sector of the U.S. Consultants, managers, the executive decision-makers, union officials, supervisors and workers in these seven organizations were interviewed to gather some ideas of what was successful and what was wasteful. The major approaches were a comparative study of the educational training experiences of the seven firms, and an analysis of the perceptions of forty-eight workers in those firms.

Both of the major data gathering and analysis approaches are qualitative since each of the companies had distinct and virtually individualized programs. Each of the companies differed from one another in product, the size of the program, the length of time for the educational activities and many other such factors. The workers while representative of the people in the worker participation programs had different sets of experiences and training. The research approach which was developed to gather both the comparative study data and the interview data employed open-ended questioning and interviewing techniques in order to gain the full sense of the situation and background in each location (Guba and Lincoln,1982). In addition, both the study of the programs and the interviews with the workers were structured by a series of factors which insured that data was gathered in systematic way also. This approach to data-gathering enabled the researcher to establish what Irish (1983) has described as "universal and emerging generalizations about common patterns, exemplary practices, and common issues and problems." In addition, the data was subjected to three kinds of analysis suggested by Bogdan and Biklen (1982) namely, theoretical analysis, content analysis, and demographic analysis.

The comparative analysis was organized around the following seven categories:

1. company background factors
2. program development processes
3. program purposes and philosophy

4. program organization and administration
5. curriculum and instruction
6. clientele characteristics
7. program evaluation

The worker interviews were focussed on questions regarding 1) the nature of their participation; 2) the role of those in the program __workers,managers, supervisors, and consultants; 3) the training program they were part of; 4) the kinds of decisions the were involved in; 4) their level of satisfaction with the program; 5) problems they encountered as participants; 6) their thoughts on preparation of other workers for participation.

The number of interviews which were compiled into these two analytical approaches for the purpose of studying workers participation numbered seventy. They included at each site:

-9 Interviews at a Textile Mill
10 Interviews at an Electronics Firm
11 Interviews at a State School
-8 Interviews at an Automobile Agency
10 Interviews at a Ball Bearing Plant
10 Interviews at a Film Manufacturer
12 Interviews at a Radiator Plant

Observations, Conclusions and Implications for Revitalizing American Industry Through Worker Participation

Two major conclusions have emerged from this research on worker participation programs in American industry. Taken together they are an affirmation of worker participation as a viable approach to the revitalization of American industry.

This research has shown that, first, workers in American companies, overwhelmingly, want to be part of the revitalization process, and they will eagerly participate and make contributions to a process which has the hope of producing benefits both for the company and for themselves. The second conclusion is that the most effective preparation for those workers who will be adopting new leadership roles as change agents in the process of revitalizing their company is education that incorporates adult learning principles which aim at developing self-directed leaders. These two findings go hand-in-hand.. From this research, it is clear that workers want to play a key role in changing their own work arrangements and conditions, and at the same time they need and want to learn about self-directed leadership which will help them make an authentic and genuine contribution to changing and improving their organizations. In every company, no matter what its product or service, the workers want to

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play a key role in bringing about the changes which improve the working conditions and improve the company. Workers don't want to be victims of someone else's ideas of what is needed, and they want to be recognized as key contributers rather than as mindless drones.

Despite the long history of adversarial relations in many companies in this study, and despite a social-caste system in many places of work which constantly reminds workers of their lowered position in the pyramid of regard, workers overwhelmingly showed their strong desires to be part of the revitalization plans when asked. Formal union opposition posed no barrier, and workers even understood the reluctance of middle managers and supervisors to give up authority when participation programs were being instituted. They also put up with harassment form these middle managers and supervisors, and from nonparticipating workers who regarded them as "spies" or "another layer of management." Workers want to share in the solution to the competitive issues which American industry must solve if it is to stay on top. Workers do not want the next generation of technological solutions imposed on them by an unthinking and uncaring system when they know that not all problems are mechanical in nature. Workers know that many of the problems and many of the solutions are rooted in people relationships.

But just as sure as workers are that they want to be part of the leadership for change, it is clear from this study that worker participation in company decision-making is a slow and difficult undertaking. Even under the best of conditions with a concerned management and a willing work force, worker participation is difficult to implement. The complexities of the transition in each of the sites was found to be unique and complex. Building new working relationships and power-authority transfer while still trying to keep business going as usual made the changeover extremely arduous for all involved. Yet the inherent logic of worker participation lulls people into a naive optimism, and then when the processes of team meetings and planning drone on for long periods of time and when small changes don't immediately bring about drastic changes or big profits, participants become less enthusiastic and increasingly more frustrated.

In virtually every site in this study, the commitment to training, while strong at the startup phase designed to introduce the company's desire to have worker participation, was very limited on the long term support side of the ledger. The key implication, as this researcher sees it, is the need to provide longterm, continuous educational training for all participatnts so that they can continue to gain the new skills, develop the problem solving tactics for dealing with the relationship issues which emerge at every point in the worker participation process, and for confronting the obstacles which occur as the worker participation program develops and matures. Typical of the problems in a program which promises changes in roles and relationships between workers and their superviors and managers include: intra-team conflicts in which various team members, be they supervisors or workers,find they cannot get along in productive fashion; steering committee and team conflicts which hamper the coordination of ideas being developed; lack of speedy integration of the ideas developed by the team into the regular processes of the company.

Eleven recommendations were developed in this study to address the complex changes in organization and communications which occur when a company changes its decision-making orientation. The recommendations include:

o Participation must be voluntary

o Work team meetings at which ideas for change and improvement are generated are the major vehicles for participation

o Participation by workers and employees at all levels of the organization in the process of revitalizing the company requires an organizational structure which parallels the regular company's decision-making arrangement

o The aims and purposes have to be spelled out so that benefits for both the company and the workers are clear to the workers

o External consultants with special expertise in worker participation and adult learning principles are needed in the early stages of the development of the program

o Training for participation is carried out using the real problems of the particular company workforce as the major vehicle for learning

o Training for participation must aim at helping the participant become self-directed

o The worker participation program must be introduced in a way that emphasises the need for employee involvement in initiating organizational change

o Top management support for the worker participation program must be demonstrated by their attendence at work team and steering committee meetings

o Regular program evaluation with agreed-upon indicators for success must be carried out

o Worker participation is a long term commitment to change and improvement in an organization; it is not "quick fix" for problems of a longstanding nature

The recommendations are not numbered. This is deliberate so that it can be conveyed that they are not a collection of separate components or a checklist for keeping track of progress. Rather, they are like organs of the human body -- each has to be functioning well and functioning with each other before the body can be said to be in good health. If any one of the recommendations is not being addressed directly with attention as to how it affects the other recommendations then the worker participation program may have a serious defect which may cause the program to become static or be abandoned by workers or management.

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LEARNING IMPLICATIONS of the SMALL ADULT EDUCATION CENTRE

ABSTRACT

This paper considers the nature of the small adult education centre and argues that it exemplifies the most valuable and distinctive features of adult education.

INTRODUCTION

Case studies of adult education centres seem largely to have paid attention to those in large cities or centres of population. They also seem to have focussed on those with particular problems or achievements and have often been socially, politically or administratively orientated. The specifically educational dimension, does not seem fully to have received its due. I should like, therefore, in this paper to consider some of the peculiar benefits to be found in the provision of adult education in this way.

THE BUILDING

Most small centres have either total or partial regular use of their own identifiable premises. Where the premises is shared with other users a fruitful inter-relationship sometimes develops. More often there is competition for use of scarce resources and conflicts of interest may develop. In either case, the kind of premises provided does affect the learning process. Adults are not obliged to be students and a congenial environment is important in attracting and retaining students and influences the kind of education that can take place.

The widespread provision of adult evening classes in buildings used by school-children during the day illustrates this. Though unavoidable, in many cases, on economic grounds, the feeling is unfortunately there that adult education is the 'extra' that takes place when the mainstream has gone home. Worse still, the schoolroom ethos, inherited by the class as they assemble, can influence and even dictate the kind of teaching which takes place. In some instances, such as the provision of adult literacy classes, it can even prove fatal to any real progress. The last thing such students require is to find themselves again in the setting in which they failed before.

An adult centre does provide independent premises and also therefore a world and setting appropriate to the education it is offering and to the students who receive it. Independent thinking and free discussion under the guidance of a tutor are more likely to flourish in a centre and these are perhaps the distinguishing features of true adult education. In a small community, too, it may be the place at which clubs and societies meet and from these classes and research groups may grow.

The important thing about a centre is that it has its own identity and that adult education is at the centre of it. When this happens it has become part of the mainstream and is no longer peripheral, and it may well be that a centre in a small community gives the best chance of achieving this.

STAFF and TUTORS

The smaller centre is likely to have one professional member of staff responsible for running it, a Warden or a Principal, and it may or may not have a relationship with a parent body. It is likely to be provided with secretarial assistance and possibly with some additional administrative help. If it has an organic relationship with its community it will very likely make good use of volunteers. In the provision of tutors, however, it will be substantially on its own and this has implications for the type of learning that will go on.

A large city centre will be able to build up a register of tutors to which reference can be made, whereas the smaller rural centre will forever be seeking to 'discover' tutors and to develop their talents. It is likely, of necessity, to make more use of members of the local community for this purpose and in this context 'training' becomes of particular importance. Professional members of the community become potential tutors and the process by which some of them become actual tutors can itself be an exemplary piece of adult education. People who have come to a class for a number of years may eventually feel able to take one.

The numbers of people who are 'expert' at something, whether a profession or a hobby, is larger than is often supposed and the release of this talent can be very rewarding. When it takes place the relationship between the teachers and the taught is much more direct than would normally be the case and there is an implicit movement away from authoritarian forms of learning towards the sharing of enthusiams. There is also more immediate 'feedback' and a more natural tendency for the class and the tutor to explore things together and for local research projects to be engendered.

Of course, standards must be safeguarded, and where there is a parent organisation, such as a University or an Education Authority, this will normally act as a controlling force on formal qualifications and assist in the training. It is in the rural community and through the smaller centre, however, that the additional test, is the tutor successfully enthusing his students, is most rigorously and automatically applied. Where there is a parent authority there is also the possibility of balancing the programme with some contribution from tutors travelling from headquarters and these can be particularly valuable in subject areas where a local tutor cannot satisfactorily be identified or when something 'special' is being offered.

Modern technology is constantly developing modes of 'distance teaching' and these, too, have their place. It is now possible to have a university tutor conduct or contribute to a class from a campus many miles away, and it is also possible to link together several centres for discussion purposes. This can be helpful and may be a lifeline in truly remote areas, although it can never be an adequate substitute for the value of live human contact.

THE STUDENTS

The potential audience for adult education everywhere, is, of course, and should be, all adults, but some particular categories of need have become especially apparent in England in recent times.

People who find themselves out of work, for whatever reason, find some kind of re-training and some re-alignment of their lives a necessity. People in work find that their jobs become increasingly complex and there is a constant need to up-date knowledge. People who have retired, many of them earlier than has previously been the case, find the opportunity to study the arts or develop a creative interest under the guidance of a tutor gives a new meaning to the way they come to think about life. People who have previously studied successfully find the contact with other people necessary to sharpen and stimulate their minds. And people who left the formal education system early, or have not had these opportunities in life, get a second chance and are often all the more appreciative of it.

All these people need to be reached and catered for, and the smaller centre in a local community is likely to be in a better position to uncover the needs of individuals and provide for them a sense of personal care and attention. It is also likely to be more closely connected to the other institutions to which people seeking help may turn - the local unemployment centre, for instance, the local citizen's advice bureau and local clubs and societies and the small adult centre may develop an initimate and intricate network of contacts along which people whom it may be able to help may be referred. Again this has implications for learning.

editions of everything and maybe an exhibition to visit. Should the entire course be devoted to Jane Austen? The volume of her work is compact and manageable and there is great value to be gained from an 'in-depth' study of the great writer. Or should the time available be shared with other writers to give an idea of how her work has developed from its 18th. Century predecessors or of how it fits in with more general concepts of the novel? These and many similar questions will be of acute importance in the planning of a literature course.

And if this is so within a single subject discipline, how much more so is it when we come to consider the nature of the overall provision made by a centre? The needs of Science have to be considered against those of the Arts, the needs of practical activities against those of academic study, the legitimate claims of a minority interest against those of a subject which is known to be popular. The provision of a balanced programme will need to take into account all these things and the answers may depend very much upon where and when the questions are being asked.

Philosophical and theoretical considerations also have to be carefully balanced against financial exigencies to give the best use of available resources, and in a smaller centre decisions will be very much guided by local practical considerations. The very proper academic considerations concerning Jane Austen, for instance, expressed earlier, will be to no avail if a sufficiently well qualified tutor is not to hand. In a local community which is alive and healthy the professional adult educators and the student body will be closely related to these considerations and the probable response to a course being offered or denied will be 'felt' along the pulses of those using the building. The deciding factor in the discussion outlined earlier could be something as simple as the knowledge that the person known to be best equipped to take it will be leaving the district next year.

Similarly, those planning the provision of adult education will need to be aware of new arrivals in the area. A new consultant at the hospital, a senior appointment in one of the local industries, may be just the person to tutor a course which has been wanted for some time but which it has not previously been possible to mount. The setting up of a new archaeological trust, the building of a new centre for the mentally handicapped, may bring to the town professional people who in turn make possible new courses which it has not been possible to offer before. The group which has recently been formed to help dyslexic children and the person newly appointed to monitor the rapid growth of computer studies in the area are important new developments. Contact with them is not simply practical management and common-sense it is also good academic planning.

THE TIMETABLE

Most centres and parent bodies stipulate minimum and in some cases maximum, sizes for a class and there are sound educational reasons for this. Personal participation and interchange of views, between tutor and students and between individual students, is something on which good adult education depends. If the class is too small no interchange of this sort will be possible; if it is too large it will not be possible for everybody to contribute and such interchange as there is may be undisciplined and difficult to control. Most educationists would probably feel that fifteen or seventeen students is the ideal size for an adult study group.

All figures are arbitrary, but a parent body or authority might well fix a minimum of twelve students and a maximum of twenty-four as the numbers between which it will allow a class to run. In England financial pressures in many places in recent times have led administrators to become increasingly insistent upon applying the minimum number and increasingly willing to find reasons for not applying the maximum. But however the criteria are applied a minimum number of students will still be required to make a viable class and the shape of the timetable will be dependent on whether this is achieved.

People who are unemployed may come for specific re-training or more generally because a course is the most constructive way to use the 'time on their hands'. Either way they are going to need to be made to feel wanted and to be presented with a new perspective in a way that is both practical and offers the prospect of success. They are likely to respond best to circumstances as unlike the received image of traditional formal education as possible and to being encouraged to express themselves freely in small groups rather than being lectured at. It may well be necessary to engage them in the collaborative development of their own syllabuses and to provide different types of courses at different times from traditional provision.

Again people who are taking up a course on retirement or who are discovering education in later life are likely to have special apprehensions which it is worth recognising. They may well need to be 'coaxed over the threshold' and will be very strongly influenced by first impressions, and in a small community it may well be possible for students already attending the adult centre to 'introduce' potentially interested people known to them and to be willing to visit and encourage those who become known to the centre. In matters such as these it is not necessarily true that 'small is beautiful': but it is certainly worth courting.

THE CURRICULUM

The development of a curriculum in adult education has always been a much more piecemeal thing than the provision of a curriculum in other more formal established areas of education. There are very often no examinations to be prepared for and no immediate external criteria to be met, so the overt directing and constricting forces present in most other areas are for the most part absent. This gives the adult educator a freedom to develop courses and initiate learning in a more wide-ranging and more flexible way than is normally possible for his colleagues in other sections of the educational system, but it brings with it a corresponding responsibility to justify the value and necessity of what he is doing. The controlling forces for adult education are less immediately apparent and are different from the mainstream, but they are there all the same.

Most practising adult educators would probably recognise the philosophy underlying their curriculum as a 'needs meeting' one. The needs being met span a wide spectrum, from those of 'compensation', as in adult basic education, through that which is more 'recreationally orientated' such as crafts and physical skills, to that of personal fulfilment, the development of the mind through academic study. In England a wide range of providing bodies, including Education Authorities and the Universities, are engaged in trying to meet these needs, and in developing its curriculum the small centre will have the dual task of identifying genuine needs and assessing priorities in the use of its resources.

A very large centre for instance, may be in a position to offer a comprehensive literature programme. The kind of decision to be made might well be whether or not poetry or drama are sufficiently well represented in a programme of ten or more literature courses or whether a second course on the nineteenth century novel is really called for. In a smaller centre, offering perhaps two or three literature courses, the choice might well be between prose or poetry, between Jane Austen or T.S. Eliot, between 18th. or 20th. Century literature, between English literature or foreign literature in translation. There is no possibility of offering all of them except over a period of time, and then it becomes very important to relate it to what was done last year and what might be done next year.

Is this the best year to do Jane Austen, for example? A serialisation of one of her novels may be planned by a television company and this could offer an opportunity to study at the same time questions involved in adpating a classic work for another medium. Might next year be better? An anniversary may be coming up, there will be new

In a large city the turnover of student population tends to be more rapid than in a smaller town where the population is liable to have remained more stable. It is both easier to continue an existing class and more difficult to start a new one in the smaller centre. Where the subject is concerned is one where there are many different areas to be studied, such as literature or music, the coming together of a tutor and a group may develop into a union which naturally perpetuates itself from year to year and there is a very healthy stability in this. People are able to get to know each other much better than is normally possible and in some cases such a group may even continue to meet, without a tutor, in what would normally be a vacation period. It is also educationally valuable as it enables a syllabus to be planned and developed over several years and there can be great value in such depth and continuity of study. The long-term planning and execution of a course in this way is now something which is relatively rare in British education.

But the continuing development of new classes is as necessary to the healthy life of a small centre as it is anywhere else and another factor which is important is the time at which classes are put on. In the common perception of adult classes the word 'evening' is very often invisibly present, and it is true that most adult classes do take place at that time. A centre however, with its own premises has the opportunity to organise classes at other times of the day and is able to reach people for whom evening study is either inconvenient or not possible.

In this way attendance at classes becomes possible , for instance, for very many more mothers and for retired people. The establishment of a creche can sometimes be organised locally by a group of young mothers and this can be a social bond which actually strengthens a class. For the elderly too, the weekly class and its associated reading and background study can form an important part of their lives and for many elderly people, and particularly during the winter, the evening is not a time when they are willing, able or confident about leaving their homes.

It is clear, then, that there will develop groups which can only meet in the evenings and groups which can only meet during the day. There will also be tutors who can only teach during the evening and some who can only teach during the day. A successful and popular evening course may be offered to a different set of people during the day and there is no reason why a course which failed to recruit sufficient students during the day should not subsequently run successfully during the evening.

It is also possible that the needs of some people are best met by providing a more intensive course over several days rather than the traditional weekly meetings. And for people who are not able to attend regularly or intensively a well-prepared day-school or series of day-schools may be most appropriate. These can be particularly useful for those who may be interested in a subject but are not yet sure that they wish to pursue it in more depth and they can also be the ideal format for studying issues of current concern. When such schools are offered on a Saturday they can bring into the centre people who are never seen there during the week. All these considerations are important to the planning of a programme and the smaller centre provides most scope for reflecting through the timetable what the needs of the community turn out to be.

THE COMMUNITY

Quite apart from evening students or day students, regular students or occasional students, students of this discipline or that topic, people are able also to become students of the centre. It is their place that they go to, people they have come to know that they meet there, and it is in their interest, in the proper and unselfish sense of that word to support it. It is this feeling of shared community activity, a sense of corporate responsibility for what goes on there, that is the greatest asset a centre can have and what most distinguishes it from the provision of adult education in any other way.

There may well develop a group of people whose attendance at the centre is regular, whose practise is to attend more than one course simultaneously, and who vary the courses they attend from year to year. Their interests as adults in education and their proper desire to make the most of their centre has now taken them well beyond the particular interest or need that brought them in. It is from such a group of people that the motive power for innovation and suggestions for new courses will naturally come. And it is their presence in the classroom and their subsequent regular attendance that can help the new course succeed where it might otherwise have failed. When the prevailing criteria for class viability are applied and as a result a new initiative is threatened with closure before it has properly begun knowledge of this in the centre can be enough to put it right. People who are definitely intending to come to the centre that session but have not yet decided exactly which class or classes to attend may well see the Warden or the Secretary and discuss their choice. As a result both they and others whom they know may naturally find their way into classes which are potentially vulnerable rather than those which are already well established. What in a large organisation the administrator can only hope for in a smaller centre the ethos may bring about.

And then there is community in the wider sense as well. Adult education curricula are peculiarly exposed to the immediate impact of social policy. Developing requirements in the life of a nation may make necessary and urgent demands of the adult education process. The nature of its provision and the way in which it is funded often mean that it is both more vulnerable to short-term manipulation and better equipped to meet legitimate expectations than its mainstream counterpart. The direction of a government's social programme or the weighting of an education department's priorities can have a profound effect on the way an adult department can function. And even where no open attempt is made to direct or control the curriculum itself the indirect effects can often be more substantial than is generally recognised.

But the adult education process properly understood and sensitively handled is also in a unique position to respond positively to the changing needs of society where they are educationally sound. The variety of its provision and the flexibility of its administrative framework puts it in an unrivalled position, not only to do the job that it should be doing all the time, but to recognise the emerging changes of social life, and where aspirations or expectations are legitimate to deliver the goods.

In this important sense the small adult education centre is in a unique position to make its own immediate response for it is right on the frontier of things. If it is truly a part of the locality it is serving it will be in a prime position to assess and respond to the changing needs, as they do change, of its own community. Its connections through formal links and through its students will be with every aspect of the community. It should, therefore, be able to perceive the changing needs earlier, make more informed distinctions between competing priorities, and assess what can be done in the light of a much more direct knowledge both of those who use the centre and those who may come to use it. And it will be able to do this not just out of a proper desire to make the right decisions but from a genuine understanding of how they will effect the lives of individuals.

CONCLUSION

The smaller centre, then, can be in a unique position to be at the heart of what adult education is fundamentally about. In reflecting and serving the microcosm of its community it is in a position to present a model for the reflection and service of the macrocosm of its society. There, in its clearest form, the distinctive features of adult education may be seen in action.

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January 1986

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GROUP INTERVIEWS:
A SOCIAL METHODOLOGY FOR SOCIAL INQUIRY

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This paper examines the origins of the one-on-one interview as social inquiry, its roots in American individualism, and the foundation for an alternative practice: group interview.

> The interview is more than tool to object of study. It is the art of sociological sociability, the game which we play for the pleasure of savoring its subtleties. It is our flirtation with life, our eternal affair, played hard and to win, but played with that detachment and amusement which gave us, win or lose, the spirit to rise up and interview again and again.
>
> Mark Benny and Everett Hughes[1]

The interview is an invention of mass media. Mayhew, a reporter for a London newspaper, was the first pollster to propose as social fact conclusions drawn from the agregated responses of "some thousands of the humbler classes of society." From this humble journalistic beginning a little over a century ago, the interview has become one of the principle research tools for social inquiry, exceeded in instance of use only by its more formal offspring, the questionaire.

The dominant practice of interviewing individuals, rather than groups, has been based largely on methodological concern for preventing the contamination of data. Less of concern to researchers, seemingly, has been the dominant assumption that data provided by individuals can, in aggregate, yield social truth; that individuals are conscious of social phenomena; and that the whole of social reality is equal to the sum of its parts. These assumptions bear reexamination.

Part I
Social Knowledge and the Individual

Our search for social knowledge is channeled by assumptions about 1) the source of such knowledge, 2) the nature of knowledge itself, and 3) methods appropriate for the search. For most of us, these assumptions have been shaped by the philosophy of individualism. The origins of individualism in American thought is complex, but deeply rooted in the development of capitalism, free enterprise, and liberal democracy. As James Bryce observed in 1888, "Individualism, the love of enterprise, and pride in personal freedom, have been deemed by Americans not only their choicest, but their peculiar and exclusive possessions."[2] It is not our purpose to contend that these assumptions are 'false'--rather, that they are assumptions, an unquestioned logic which we impose on the world when we raise questions and propose answers.

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[1] "Of Sociology and the Interview," *American Journal of Sociology*. 62:2 (September 1956).

[2] Bryce, James. *The American Political Tradition*. Vintage Books (New York 1954), p. viii.

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1. The Individual as Source of Knowledge

Most knowledge in the social sciences in general, and in education in particular, is derived from individuals who are surveyed, tested, interviewed or by other means measured. The "truth of the matter" is derived largely from the aggregation of data provided by individuals. The individual in such research is pictured abstractly as constituted independently of his or her social context, with given interests, goals, and needs, and regarded as a product of nature, rather than history. On the other hand, social institutions and rules are, as in the *Leviathan* of Thomas Hobbes,[3] considered artifacts: merely a means of fulfilling the independent needs of individuals who construct and patronize them.

The most penetrating critique of this conceptualization of the individual in society has been given by Marx who wrote:

> Man is in the most literal sense of the word a *zoon politikon*, not only a social animal, but an animal which can develop into an individual only in society. Production by isolated individuals outside of society--something which might happen as an exception to a civilized man who by accident got into the wilderness and already dynamically possessed within himself the forces of society--is as great an absurdity as the idea of the development of language without individuals living together and talking to one another.[4]

For Marx, interests, goals, and needs are never simply given. These "characteristics of the individual" are more likely the consequence of economic and political conditions than instruments for economic and political change. We shape our tools, thereafter our tools shape us.

2. The Nature of Knowledge

A partial consequence of the dominant American focus on the individual-as-given is what Steven Lukes has called "epistemological individualism," a philosophical doctrine about the nature of knowledge which asserts that the source of all knowledge lies within the individual.[5] Descartes began from this position--that is, from the individual's certainty of his or her own existence: *cogito ergo sum*.[6] This Cartesian premise finds full expression in the empiricist's claim that all knowledge derives from experience, arises within the individual mind and is based on individual sensations. According to this view, all contingent truth (truth which is not logically necessary) must be based on and is reducible to data grounded in experience. Research is, from such an atomistic perspective, a program of building the whole of knowledge from observing its discrete, elemental pieces.

Challenges to this position have come principally from those who point to the need for a shared, "intersubjective" language as a precondition of knowledge.[7]

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[3] Hobbes, Thomas. *Leviathan*. E.P. Dutton & Co. (New York 1950).

[4] Marx, Karl. *Introduction to the Critique of Political Economy*. Translated by N.L. Stone. University of Chicago (Chicago 1913), pp. 267-8.

[5] Lukes, Steven. *Individualism*. Basil Blackwell (Oxford 1973).

[6] Descartes, Rene. *A Discourse on Method and Selected Writings*. Translated by John Veitch. E.P. Dutton & Co. (New York 1951).

[7] See especially Durkheim, Emile. *Elementary Forms of Religious Life*. Allen & Unwin (London 1915).

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3. Methodological Individualism

Methodological individualism, a term first introduced by J.W.N. Watkins in 1955,[8] is a doctrine about explanation. It asserts that all explanations of social phenomena must be made in terms of facts about individuals. Its proponents in social science research include Max Weber ("sociology itself can only proceed from the actions of one or more separate individuals and must therefore adopt strictly individualistic methods"[9]), John Stuart Mill ("the laws of the phenomena of society are, and can be, nothing but...the laws of individual human nature"[10]), and Karl Popper ("the functioning of all social institutions should always be understood as resulting from the decisions, actions, attitudes, etc. of human individuals"[11]). In Watkins words:

> Every complex social situation, institution or event is the result of a particular configuration of individuals, their dispositions, situations, beliefs, and physical resources and environment. There may be unfinished or half-way explanations of large-scale phenomena; but we shall not have arrived at rock-bottom explanations of such large-scale phenomena until we have deduced an account of them from statements about the dispositions, beliefs, resources and inter-relations of individuals.[12]

What does methodological individualism claim? The answer to this question varies, depending on the extent to which "society" and the "social context" have been incorporated into the explanatory individual. For example, statements about brain-states or condition of the central nervous system make no reference to social groups or institutions. On the other hand, statements about the scheduling of this conference or election of a new Commission president presuppose and sometimes directly invoke propositions about social groups and institutions. Thus, there is a range of predicates or statements about individuals on a continuum from non-social to the most social. For example...

from Non-Social... ☐ Right-hemosphere/left hemosphere functions;
☐ Motivation, self-directedness in learning;
☐ Participation, authority, renoun;
to Social... ☐ Correlation between schooling and later achievement.

Note that each of these examples can and have been used to explain social phenomena. For example, motivational research is frequently used to explain why "non-participants" persistently evade the broad net cast by adult education marketing specialists.

Critics of methodological individualism are quick to point out that predicates of the first two types are neither plausible nor promising when used to explain social phenomena; explanations of the third type are partial and cannot account for the differences between institutions and societies; finally, statements of the fourth type are question-begging because they build crucial social factors into the allegedly explanatory individuals (as, in our example, by focusing on the individual in school and in the work force, while ignoring the effects of class, sex, etc. on school and work options).

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[8] "Methodological Individualism: A Reply," *Philosophy of Science*. 22 (1955).

[9] Quoted in Mommsen, W. "Max Weber's Political Sociology and his Philosophy of World History," *International Social Science Journal*. 17 (1965).

[10] *A System of Logic*. 9th Edition. (London 1874), p. 469.

[11] *The Open Society and its Enemies*. (London 1945), p. 98.

[12] "Historical Explanations in the Social Sciences," in P. Gardiner (editor), *Theories of History*. The Free Press (Glencoe, IL 1959), p. 505.

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3. Implications for Interviewing

When concerned with social phenomena, there are several questions which the researcher ought first to address if interviews are to be used. To what extent are individuals repositories of knowledge about society and its institutions? Which individuals are knowledgeable? Under what conditions are statements by individuals concerning intentions, goals, needs, and opinions informed, reasoned, and accurate even as reflections of individual perception? And finally, might there not be a more appropriate source of social data, namely the social group itself?

Part II
The Social Construction of Reality

Challenging the individualistic perspectives on meaning and knowledge, Blumer's theory of symbolic interaction posits that

> meaning arrises out of a process of interaction between people. The meaning of a thing grows out of the ways in which other persons act toward the person with respect to the thing... Meanings are social products.[13]

Human groups or societies exist in action. It is through action that meanings are interpreted. The activities of members of a society occur predominantly in response to or in relation to one another. Therefore, objects (be they artifacts or social phenomena) must be seen as social creations. They are formed in the process of definition and interpretation as this takes place thorugh the interaction of people.

> The meaning of anything and everything has to be formed, learned, transmitted through a process of indication—a process that is necessarily a social process.[14]

The ability to "indicate" objects to one's self and others enables two kinds of human action to occur. First is the ability to indicate one's self as an object to one'sself. This provides us with the capacity to understand ourselves more fully, both as individuals and as members of society. It also allows us to engage in "taking the role of the other" which is essential for effective communication. Second, it enables humans to enter into joint or collective action which is the outcome of the process of interpretative interaction between individuals.

Relating theory to practice, "the social construction of reality," is the assumption upon which the work of Paulo Freire, feminist educators, participatory researchers, and others is based. It is the collective creation of meaning--in study "circles" for Freire, in consciousness-raising groups for feminists--that leads to joint strategies for action. For social activists the identification of current and past social meanings does not suffice. These meanings must be accompanied by the creation of new meanings, and new meanings are most effectively identified and created through social interaction--that is, in groups.

1. The Group as a Source of Knowledge

As a source of knowledge, the group is not a new focus. Educators, such as Kurt Lewin,[15] recognized the value of the group for planning learned change. His model, later called Training or T-Groups, used the group as a source of knowledge. Feedback regarding individuals' perceptions and behaviors, offered by other group members, provided the process by which growth and development occurred. Here, as with social group work (therapeutic) and group counseling, the focus of understanding is the individual and the means of understanding is the group.

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[13] Blumer, Herbert. *Symbolic Interactionism.* Prentice Hall (New York 1964), p.4.

[14] *Ibid.*, p.12.

[15] In Appley, D. G., and Wonder, Alvin E. *T-Groups and Therapy Groups in a Changing Society.* Jossey-Bass (San Francisco 1973), p.18.

The use of "Focus Groups" in the fields of marketing, training, and organizational development is a tool for quickly indentifying reactions to new products or processes.[16] Here, the goal is to identify the perceptions and opinions of aggregated individuals who are brought together in groups for the purpose of efficiency.

In these examples, the group as a source of knowledge identifies individual meanings, perceptions and behaviors. In the case of Training Groups an additional goal is planned change. But for participatory researchers, radical adult educators, feminist educators, and others, the value of groups as a source of knowledge lies in their illumination of social phenomena and the impetus groups create for collective action in the development of new social meanings.

2. The Group Interview: A Research Tool

The value of group interviews is that they bring the researcher "into the world of subjects."[17] When reflecting together, participants will often stimulate each other. For example, in a study of women's perceptions regarding barriers and facilitators of their learning in traditionally male vocational programs, one woman's comment that she would prefer an exclusively female program might lead other women to consider the pros and cons of coed versus sex exclusive programs. Group interviews also provide clues to the language, terms, and codes that participants share.[18] As groups develop they create their own language codes, just as they are creating their own meanings.[19] It is important and valuable to be able to understand the group language code as well as the group culture.[20] Particularly in studies where the group factor is in itself important (such as in participatory research groups and Freirean study circles) the group interview becomes a most appropriate research tool.

3. Conducting a Group Interview

The assumption presented in this paper is that groups are a valid, and frequently the only appropriate source for the identification and creation of social knowledge. For participatory researchers and Freirean and feminist educators, the conduct of group interviews requires that the traditional hierarchial separation of researcher and the researched be eliminated. The researcher becomes a full participant in the group. Theirs is a dialectic relationship, resulting in "intersubjectivity."[21] Here, the researcher listens attentively, questions, shares his or her own experiences, proposes tentative conclusions for the group's evaluation and suggestions, writes up the results in field notes, and occasionally returns to the group with these notes for final comment. If a researcher accepts the group as a source of social knowledge and values the social creation of meaning, then s/he must be willing to be a full participant in the process. S/he must be willing to respond, as well as question; follow a line of inquiry valued by the group, as well as propose questions central to the research question with which s/he began. Such a methodology emphasizes "people studying people" as an interactive process. This eliminates the unwarranted object/subject split between researcher and researched, as well as the exploitation of those researched as though they were objects.

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[16] Zemke, Ron *et al.*, *Figuring Things Out: A Trainer's Guide to Needs and Task Analysis*. Addison Wesley (New York 1983).

[17] *Ibid.*

[18] Bodgdan, Robert C. *et al.* *Qualitative Research for Education: An Introduction to Theory and Methods*. Allyn and Bacon (New York 1982). Also Patton, Michael A. *Qualitative Evaluation Methods*. Sage Publications (New York 1980).

[19] Eakins, R. and Eakins, Barbara W. *Sex Differences in Human Communications*. Houghton Miffin (New York 1978).

[20] Derber, Charles. *The Pursuit of Attention: Power and Individualism in Everyday Life*. Shenkman Publishing (Boston 1979). Also, Phillipsen, Berry, "Speaking Like a Man in Teamsterville: Cultural Patterns of Role Enactment in an Urban Neighborhood," *Quarterly Journal of Speech*. Vol. 61 (February 1975).

[21] Westkott, Marcia. "Feminist Criticism in the Social Sciences," *Harvard Educational Review*. 49:4 (November 1979), p. 422-430.

The results of group interviews are obviously interactive, rather than linear. Instead of cumulative outcomes--as when responses are added together to demonstrate effect (R+R+R+R=significant outcome)--outcomes may be the creation of totally new meaning from the dynamic interweaving of responses and the social interrelationships among the respondents. In other words, the whole is greater than (or different from) the sum of its parts. The point is, group interviews cannot be validated by comparing their results with individual interviews with the same population. **Rather, groups will produce meanings which are social products and which may, and probably will, be quite different from the prior perceptions of any single individual.**

4. Summary

Group interviews become appropriate tools of research, once we emerge from the individualistic paradigm and understand knowledge as socially produced. The group interview is of value to researchers because it:

-approximates real life, a community of peers, a microcosm of social reality,
-allows group members to discover new or hidden meanings,
-provides opportunities for learning, as well as "knowledge-production," and
-significantly improves the likelihood that the group will act on the basis of its knowledge.

The group interview fulfills three functions critical to the "social construction of reality."

-It is participatory, i.e. the group becomes a co-researcher in social inquiry.
-It is heuristic, i.e. it leads to and exemplifies experimentation.
-It is illuminative: i.e. through it, social meanings are created and our knowledge of ourselves deepened.

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WOMEN'S LEARNING: A PERSPECTIVE FROM JUNGIAN INDIVIDUATION

ABSTRACT

Individuation from analytical psychology offers a research framework replete with rich images and concepts. Individuation is discussed and illustrated with a case study of one woman's experience in learning.

Many women are aware of new interests, frustrations, and possibilities for their lives. To meet these needs, they are taking advantage of the variety of continuing education courses and workshops, or returning to the university to complete degrees, or forming support groups and special interest action groups. Women are searching for a consciousness of self that helps them understand the "female" definitions imposed upon them by others (Roberts, 1974). They seek to alter the way they think about themselves by creating new categories and modes of thought (Stimpson, 1975). As women participate in the various educational activities in their search, the task is to explore the interactions between their personal experiences and the learning environment--content, symbols, and background--for clues to the meanings that are there for them. This research is concerned with one of these aspects of the learning situation--symbols. It asks the question: "Do women use the symbols of the learning situation for their growth in consciousness?"

These notions of women's use of symbols and the shaping of consciousness suggested to me that Jungian psychology and women's spirituality might be sources for a theoretical framework for the research. While the literature review is too complex to be included in this paper, an idea from each theme will be helpful as background information. From the Jungian perspective, individuation refers to the lifelong process of the development of one's consciousness. Jungian analyst Jolande Jacobi (1965) says that the raising to consciousness of deity images is the foremost task of individuation. Feminist theologian Carol Christ (1980) writes that women are searching for a ground of being, seeking to name the Great Powers, in order to gain a new perspective through an understanding of basic life definitions. Each of these scholars suggests that there is a link between a woman's experience, deity images and consciousness development.

It is the notion of the development of consciousness in the form of individuation and its relation to women's experience that I want to explore in this paper. First I will give a brief account of the research design; then I will deal with the methodology and meaning of individuation of this situation as used in the study. The findings will be directly linked to individuation in a discussion of a case study from the qualitative data.

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY, DATA ANALYSIS, AND FINDINGS

An undergraduate course with an abundance of female deity symbols was chosen for the research. The Women's Studies course "Women and Mythology" dealt with mythology as a means of understanding women and contemporary society. Such a course can raise to consciousness the influence of deity (goddess and god) images upon daily decision making and life-shaping attitudes. The attitudes and activities of the goddesses and gods offer vivid images, positive affirmation, and alternative assumptions for behaviors and thought as tools to women in the analysis of their current

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life situations (Bolen, 1984).

This research conjectured that women progress in individuation as they experience and utilize the images of the female deities (goddesses) of the mythologies.

The data were gathered through participant observation, an in-depth interview near the end of the class sessions, and the three written class assignments--a paper, journal writing and a creative project. Each of the data sources was created to allow the student to relate the interpretations of the myth to her own personal experiences from a different perspective--formal, reflective, and creative. Independent judges were trained to an acceptable interrater reliability score to determine the presence of the six categories of episodes of individuation. Case studies were then available for the interpretation of each woman's work with individuation.

The findings indicated the (1) women did manifest evidence of progress in individuation as conjectured, (2) the goddess images within the mythologies represented important symbols for the women. Each of these will be discussed as they become evident in the following abbreviated case study of one of the students.

INDIVIDUATION

It will be helpful now to look briefly at this concept of individuation. Individuation is a unique, life-long process of self-actualization for both women and men. First, it is holistic, encompassing all areas of an individual's growth--the spiritual and the intellectual, the emotional and the relational, the "feminine" and the "masculine." In this way individuation involves an interaction between the conscious and unconscious (Jacobi, 1965).

Second, individuation recognizes that symbols and archetypes are integral in the individual's self-development. While unique in their manifestation to individuals, the images, the archetypes, have a timeless quality which offers connecting points with other persons (and cultures) in the individuation journey (Jung, 1982; Jacobi, 1965).

Third, individuation is a process within which the individual comes to see himself or herself as a unique person, differentiated from the rest of the community. There are similarities among individuals, to be sure; yet only as one sees herself/himself as a distinct psychic entity will the wholeness and integration of Self be achieved (Whitmont, 1984; Ulanov, 1971).

THE DEVELOPMENT OF "EPISODES OF INDIVIDUATION" AND "BOND"

Individuation is a life-long process and generally consists of a unique process of self-development, self-actualization for each person (Jacobi, 1965). Progress in individuation is difficult to assess because of its longitudinal nature and the complexity of dealing with its components--i.e., the persona, shadow, anima and animus. Therefore for this research, it was necessary to identify indicators of individuation that would be observable in a short term situation and also would avoid the complexities of the psychology.

The spiral-like quality of psychic development was helpful in this regard. Certain motifs and problems within a person's life experience re-emerge periodically; this provides the opportunity to deal with the theme at a different level of meaning and significance (Whitmont, 1984). Thus it would be anticipated that the issues and ideas that would emerge for consideration by the woman during a semester's time would be similar to those with which the woman would deal throughout the entire course of her life. The specifics and the level of meaning and significance of the ideas and issues would differ with the changing situations of the woman.

There is a conceptual framework that has been built up over the years which defines individuation. A careful examination of this material supported the development of "episodes of individuation" for use in the analysis. Each "episode" represents a unit of the individuation process; each is integral to the whole process, yet each is a single, developed instance of the continuing process.

Six categories of "episodes of individuation" were selected for the analysis. With a short definition they are the following: discovery of newness - the discovery of latent talents, attitudes, feelings and interests that exist within ones self. Empowerment - an increased sense of power and autonomy, a new affirmation of self worth and confidence. Turmoil - an inner state of confusion, chaos, pain, the severity of which depends upon the situation. Self-responsibility - decision making that shows she is taking a new responsibility for and interest in herself and her future. Integration - the experiences of a togetherness (where there was none before) within herself and/or with parts of her world. Interiority - the deepened relation to her inner self. I will explain these later with examples from the data.

An examination of the way the individual relates to symbols leads to the idea of bond that was developed for this research. In analytical psychology, the unconscious represents among other things latent attitudes, interests, and conflicts. As these latent aspects of one's Self are made known to the conscious, often through symbols, they can be examined for their influence in the understanding of one's attitudes and activities. In this way, individuation might occur (Jung, 1982). A bond, which can be observed, is a manifestation of the content used in the dialogue between the conscious and the unconscious which cannot be observed.

Bond has two primary qualities. First there is an ATTRACTION to the deity image in the myth. This is primarily a WELLING UP, a STIRRING FROM INSIDE one's Self, from the unconscious. Second, an ASPECT OF ONE'S PERSONAL EXPERIENCE IS ASSOCIATED WITH, brought into consciousness, BROUGHT TO MIND BY, the deity image. This may be a thought, an idea, an activity, an attitude, a statement or other aspect of personal experience. Both must be present for bond to be identified.

DISCUSSION

To understand the use of individuation as a research tool I would like to offer some examples from the case study of Kris. Kris is twenty years old, a sophomore majoring in history and German. This was her third women's studies course so she was accustomed to studying and being with women. Kris came to the course, after several sessions had occurred. She was registered for 18 credits, usually got excellent grades, and felt she had the rest of her college years "all mapped out." However, February and March were "horrible" months emotionally and academically. As a result she began therapy and almost dropped this class.

First, lets look at the concept of BOND. The coders of the interviews indicated that Kris established a bond with the goddess, Inanna, in several ways.

Since the myth of Inanna (Wolkstein & Kramer, 1983) is not a familiar one, I need to tell some of her story in order for Kris' bond to be understandable. Inanna is the Queen of Heaven and Earth in the myths of the people of Sumeria around 2500 B.C. One myth describes Inanna finding her identity as a sensual/sexual being and as the ruler of her people. The myth uses the images of "bed" and "throne" to describe her quest for sexuality and vocation. Another myth tells of her acquiring for herself and her people the philosophy, skills, and attitudes of her culture. Yet another segment describes her journey into and from "the underworld" to mature her understanding of the meaning of life and death.

There were several aspects of Inanna that Kris found herself drawn to. The first is indicated in this statement from the interview: "Inanna is a very independent character I thought; yet she got her basic needs met. I have a tendency to split needingness and independence into two different categories. Like if you need something then you're dependent and so I've had to like bridge that gap."

Kris sees Inanna as a strong woman figure who can recognize her needs and also find a way to have them met. In her own life Kris sometimes sees having needs as a dependent, and therefore not a desirable situation. So Inanna's ability to combine the needing something with the meeting her own needs, an interaction of dependence and independence, is a new idea for Kris.

The second statement of Bond is this: "I think that when we were doing Inanna I really liked the whole series of life accomplishments that she had made. They weren't societal things. They were more internal, very self-growth sorts of things that are more important to me anyway than all these, you know, standard societal achievement stuff. You know getting (your bed and throne) to the point where you have your own powers and you feel very strong and you can put a focus on other things and go underground and go deeper. A lot of that stuff really spoke to me because I feel like I've been working on a lot of it and it's just neat to have that to look towards or to grab when I feel like I need to."

There are two items of note in this excerpt. First, one of the concerns that Kris articulated in several of the data sources was the expectations around which she shaped her life. In particular, the expectations for her life of parents and friends with which she had grown up were becoming less important for her than those which she was currently defining for herself. These she relates to Inanna's claiming the bed and throne for herself. Second, in this way, Kris is verbalizing that the Inanna myth is a tool with which she can see her own search for meaning in helpful ways.

These examples definitely show that BOND does exist in Kris' interview; there has been a connecting of a personal experience from Kris' life and a deity experience from the Inanna mythology. Now let us look at several examples of statements that were coded as episodes in individuation.

A code of SELF-RESPONSIBILITY means that the woman has initiated the decision making process to increase and accentuate her independence as a person or to recognize and exercise her right to make choices. A statement of Kris' was given this code. Kris began the semester with 18 credits. By midterm she recognized that her semester was not going well academically and emotionally and chose to drop 7 credits from her class load. This is significant as progress in individuation because Kris chose to deviate from a plan proscribed by and for her--that of obtaining a "classical education." Kris felt "wound up and tense" and not at all satisfied with her activities and attitudes. At this point in her academic career, her inner well being and the desire to explore other areas of life were more important that the "societal expectations" she has held for herself. She made decisions in this area based upon her new understandings of her self.

Another statement was coded as INTEGRATION. Integration is a woman's experiencing togetherness within herself where there was none before. It is feeling a wholeness about one's being and/or one's relationships with others and/or the world. For Kris, integration came with the increased sense of herself as needing and giving self-care and the "powerful" feelings she shared with the women in the class.

The togetherness with herself was manifested in the concern Kris had with the issue of dependence/independence in the "mother/child" relationship. This is most clearly seen in this excerpt from her journal.

"There is such a strangling, yet loving bond between us (Kris and her mother) that it is near impossible for me to feel whole or good about myself when she is in my life and equally hard to feel whole or good about myself when I abandon our relationship." Basically, Kris and her mother have a good relationship; however there are times and ways in which that good relationship is confining, and even detrimental to Kris' growth. As she searches through the meaning of "mothering" she realized that there are some "mother-acts" and "child-acts" that she wants to claim for herself. For instance she thinks there is a "child-like quality of a survival instinct and of an intuitive sense of knowing what is worth knowing and doing." Kris believes that she has lost track of that ability to care for herself and in fact has done more to make herself feel negative about herself.

Significant as progress in individuation is Kris' recognition and statement that "I need a lot of nurturance like a child too but it's really important for me to learn or to retouch the child and also the mother in me. . . I really want to learn how to (mother myself) and consciously work on it." Kris realized that it is not necessary for her to depend upon her biological mother for those important caring acts.

The second type of INTEGRATION, the togetherness with women, comes for Kris from "being with women who are feeling the same things." "The feeling is like (seeing) your life in other people and connecting it to the life of me and just feeling sort of this universal energy." "I just felt we are all women and we all have these things in us and we've all heard different messages about what's negative about our behavior and what holds us back. And, you know, things aren't respected in us as women."

Remember that Kris has felt very negatively about herself at times because of learned expectations of herself that she now feels are destructive for her life. During the semester she realized that other women feel similarly and most importantly she saw those women redefining those so-called negative qualities ascribed to women into positive qualities and strengths of women. This new understanding allows her to value herself in new ways and to feel herself accepted, "there's enough trust and togetherness to feel like I'm not judged and I'm really accepted."

In summary from her journal, this comment (which would be coded EMPOWERMENT) indicates Kris' own sense of the positive impact of the semester's experience: "You know, I'm growing! The last time I felt so powerful was alone in Europe. It's come back to me! Oh! How I love myself!"

SUMMARY

There exist several responses one might make to this research as I have presented it. Further research is necessary to clarify the concepts. In addition, specific instructional procedures can be identified that would enhance bonding and individuation. However, I would like to address three implications of the research for adult education.

First, this research has indicated that the notion of individuation can be investigated in an educational setting. Students identified incidents of their experiences that indicated they had made decisive progress in understanding themselves, making decisions about activities and attitudes that were consistent with Jungian definitions of progress in individuation.

Second, the findings from this research suggest that the goddess images represent important symbols for women and that women do manifest evidence of progress in individuation during the semester's time. It seems that as women explore the deity images within the mythologies, the symbols and images can be useful tools to gain new perspectives on their lives in relation to the surrounding culture.

Third, the concept of individuation can be a paradigm for the educator as she or he shapes teaching methods and course images when she or he is interested in promoting the inner journey that accompanies educational endeavors.

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Beyond Triggers and Transitions:
Forces Influencing Women's Decisions to Return to School as Undergraduates

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Presented are results of an exploratory study combining quantitative and qualitative methodology. Critical life events and reassessment of the life structure during transitional periods are the primary influences discussed.

INTRODUCTION

College enrollment by adults 25 and older, particularly women, has increased dramatically in recent years (Frankel & Gerald, 1982). A period of declining enrollment of traditional-aged students has contributed to an unprecedented interest in the recruitment of students beyond the traditional college enrollment ages of 18 to 22. Retention of these adult students in institutional settings geared toward the 18 to 22 year old, however, requires more than just the opening of doors for admission. To provide effective academic and counseling services, it is important to understand the developmental needs of adults returning to school, particularly those developmental forces which influence their decisions to return to school. Because women comprise the largest segment of the returning student population, this study was restricted to a fous on the developmental forces influencing women's decisions to return to school. It was also restricted to a focus on women in the developmental periods of young adulthood and early midlife.

In recent years, much of the research on adult development has focused on the development and refinement of life-cycle theories. The work of Daniel Levinson has triggered a number of studies aimed at investigating the applicability to women's lives of theory developed from the study of men (Hickey, 1982; Stewart, 1977; Zubrod, 1980). The existence of transitional periods in womens' lives has been substantiated, although the research suggests qualitative differences from men in the issues faced during these periods as well as possible differences in the timing or number of transitional periods (Cokin, 1983). Reassessment of the life structure occuring during transitional periods can lead to decisions involving major changes in one's life, including such changes as returning to school.

Baruch and Barnett (1979) have suggested, on the other hand, that age is not the core variable in understanding women's lives. They propose that events, many of them associated with the family life cycle, may play a critical role in women's lives. If events are the driving force in women's lives, then it could be expected that women would choose to return to school following the occurrence of critical life events. Such an explanation for the decision to return to formal schooling would coincide with Aslanian and Brickell's (1980) data indicating that life changes play a role in the choices of 83% of adults who participate in learning activities.

METHODOLOGY

Questionnaires and interviews are the primary research tools reported in the literature describing research on women's adult development and particularly the development of returning women (Bigelow, 1981; Kahnweiler & Johnson,1980; Lewis,1983). This investigation combined both of these techniques to capitalize on advantages of both the broader representation available through the questionnaire and the depth of responses possible through interviews. This triangulation of methodology is also recommended as a means of checking the reliability of data gained through either method (Patton, 1980). In addition, unique insights can be gained when two methods are used to study the same question (Reichardt & Cook, 1979).

Questionnaires

During the initial phase of this study questionnaires were mailed to undergraduate women between the ages of 25 and 50 enrolled at a southeastern university. One-half the available population was randomly selected for inclusion in this study. Because a primary purpose of the questionnaire was to guide selection of participants for interviews, a 52% return rate was accepted as adequate.

Women returning the questionnaire were divided into five age groups based on the life-cycle theoretical model of Daniel Levinson (Levinson, Darrow, Klein, Levinson & McKee, 1978). They were grouped according to their ages at the time they made the decision to return to school.

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After elimination of the 46 to 50 age group because only two questionnaires were returned by women in that age group, four age groups remained for analysis: (a) 22 to 27, n=64; (b) 28 to 33, n=47; (c) 34 to 39, n=24; and (d)40 to 45, n=8.

Questionnaire analysis was limited to the descriptive level. Means were computed for the continuous variables (age, age at the time of the decision to return to school, number of children, and time lapsed between the decision to return to school and actual application to enroll). For all other variables, frequencies and percentage distributions were calculated for both the total sample and for each of the four age groups.

Interviews.

Purposeful sampling (Goetz & Le Compte, 1984, Patton, 1980) was used to select 16 women for interviews. Questionnaire data guided the selection, with women selected to represent the diversity of the sample on key questionnaire items linked to research questions. Thus an effort was made to interview within each age group 1) women who had reported critical events, as well as at least one women who had not; (2) women who saw their lives as transitional, as well as at least one woman who did not; and 3)women whose dominant orientation was toward family, as well as at least one woman whose dominant orientation was toward career, personal development, or some other concern. Initially three women were selected from each age group. After preliminary analysis of the twelve initial interviews, it was decided an additional four women would be interviewed for reasons related to the theoretical categories emerging from the data. The criteria for selecting these four women were thus different from the criteria used to select the first 12 women and were unique for each woman.

The interviews were conducted using a guide, although questions were modified as necessary to assure clarity of meaning to individual respondents or to permit the interviewer to elicit a more explicit response. These procedures combined elements of both the schedule and non-schedule standardized interview (Richardson, Dowrenwend & Klein, 1965). The interview guide consisted of questions intended to clarify: 1) changes in identity, priorities, and goals surrounding the decision to return to school; 2) reasons for leaving school earlier as well as for returning at the time chose; and 3) events or forces which led to the return. Some items included in the interview guide were drawn from Tittle and Denker (1980) and Weathersby (1978).

To permit thorough and systematic analysis, each interview was tape-recorded, with the permission of the respondent, and complete transcripts were prepared. Coding procedures suggested by Bogdan and Biklen (1982), Goetz and Le Compte(1984) and Miles and Huberman (1984) were used to identify themes commonly found in women's descriptions of their decisions to return to school.

Combinatory Analysis

To further test an emerging hypotheses that both internal and external forces played an integral role in the decisions of all the women interviewed, though varying in predominance, summary profiles combining questionnaire and interview responses to key questions were compiled for each of the women interviewed. Analysis of these profiles led to the construction of a set of hypothetical types of returning women, for which all 16 women interviewed were assigned a primary classification.

RESULTS

Demographic Characteristics

The typical questionnaire respondent was 31 years old and decided to return to college when she was 29. The age distribution of the questionnaire respondents, in fact, closely mirrored the age distribution of female students over 25 at the university, with 48% between 25 and 29, 24.4% between 30 and 34, 15% between 35 and 39, and 12.6% between 40 and 49. Questionnaire respondents also were likely to be white, Protestant, married and have one or no children. Twenty-five percent of the respondents were divorced, with the highest proportion of divorced or remarried women in the 25 to 29 age group. Nearly two-thirds reported family incomes less than $25,000 and almost one-third had family incomes uner $10,000.

The majority of respondents (57%) were employed while attending school and most planned to work full time after earning a degree. Eighty-eight percent had been away from school at least 3 years, while nearly one-third had been away for more than 10 years. Although 53% were full-time students, the likelihood that a woman attended part-time or in the evening increased with age. Older women were also more likely to have lower levels of previous educational attainment, and less likely to have plans for an advanced degree.

Critical Life Events

Life events were examined at several levels in this study. First, respondents to the questionnaire were asked simply to indicate on a checklist those events which they had experienced in each of several time periods during the 5 years preceding the decision to return to school. Next, respondents were asked to indicate which of these events they saw as significant to their decisions to return to school. Almost all women reported life events from the checklist as having occurred in their lives, but only 62% perceived any of these events as significant to their decisions to return to school. Fifty-two percent of the events reported as significant occurred within the year prior to the return to school, while 87% occured within 3 years prior to the return to school. The events reported as significant could for the most part be categorized as relating to changes in work life or financial status or changes in marital and family relationships. To compensate for the limitations created by the constraint of having participants select events from a prepared list of events, a final questionnaire item asked women to identify any single event that stood out in their mind as the thing that triggered their return to school. Sixty-three percent of the women reported such an event, although only 9 of the 27 events from the checklist were mentioned by a total of 25 women. Many of the other "triggers" reported described ongoing situations, such as job dissatisfaction, or realizations, such as awareness of aging, rather than referring to a specific occurrence. Finally, reported trigger events were discussed during interviews within the context of the complete scope of influential factors.

Several of the events identified as significant to the decision to return to school or reported as triggers were common to all age groups, while other events were reported more frequently by women in specific age groups. The event reported most frequently as significant to the decision to return to school was a change in financial status, listed by 30% of those reporting significant events. A major geographical move played a significant role in the decision to return to school for 27% of the women reporting significant events. Events like divorce (significant to 11% of the women 22 to 27) and the exit of the last child from home (significant to 13% in the 40 to 45 age group) appeared to be more age specific in their impact.

The differential impact of life events for individual women is illustrated by comparing the frequency with which a particular event was reported as occurring to the frequency with which it was identified as significant to the decision to return to school. It is noteworthy that several life events reported as occurring with relative frequency (at least 25%) by a given age group were seen as significant to the decision to return to school by a relatively small percentage of women in the given age group (less than 10%). For example, 45% of the women in the 22 to 27 age group had married within the last 5 years, although no one in that age group saw marriage as an event significantly influencing the decision to return to school. In the same age group, on the other hand, 44% of the women had made a major geographical move in the last 5 years and 19% saw this event as having an impact on the decision to return to school.

Life Reassessment

At first glance the questionnaire data suggest that indeed the return to school is associated with a process of life reassessment, and that this process occurs similarly for returning women of all ages. Fifty-seven percent of the questionnaire respondents saw their personal lives as in transition, and 70% saw their work or career lives as in transition. Differences among age groups in the response to these items were small, but in the predicted direction. Those in the Age Thirty Transition (28-33) and Midlife Transition (40-45) age groups more frequently perceived their personal lives to be in transition. The age group most frequently reporting their career lives to be in transition was the 28 to 33 age group. Similarly, 51% of the women agreed that they were involved in a process of change, 31% perceived themselves as having just come through a major transition, and 13% felt they were just beginning to appraise their lives to initiate change. Only 5% did not report change in their lives in the recent past or foresee it in the near future.

One indication of reassessment appeared in the shift in priorities within the last 5 years. Comparing the responses on two items, one asking women to select their greatest priority 5 years ago, the other asking their greatest current priority the shift in responses followed different patterns for the youngest age group. As might be expected from a returning student sample, all age groups were less likely to indicate education as their highest priority when referring to their lives 5 years ago than for the present. Women in the three older age groups were more likely to rank family as their first priority when referring to their lives 5 years ago than for the present, while they were more likely to rank personal growth and development as a priority for the present than for 5 years earlier. The decline in the importance of family was greatest for the 34 to 39 age group. A shift in the opposite direction occurred for women in the 22 to 27 age group. They were more likely to rank family as a first priority in their current lives than to rank it as a first priority 5 years ago.

Interview data substantiated the hypothesis emerging from questionnaire data that women of varying ages differed in the nature of life reassessment. Women in the youngest age group typically failed to report either personal or work issues of immediate concern, and generally reported the major change in their lives to be gaining a sense of direction not there before. Their interviews were the shortest, with an average transcript length of 11 pages. Women in the 34 to 39 age group showed the greatest evidence of a major change in their relationship with society. Two of the four women in this age group talked extensively about coming for the first time to see themselves as important. Lengthy discussions of issues of concern to them and their perceptions of change in their lives produced interview transcripts that averaged 24 pages, more than twice the length of the 22 to 27 age group and longer than either of the other two age groups.

Other Influential Forces

The coding of complete interview transcripts permitted the identification of numerous factors operating along with life events and life reassessment as forces influencing women's decisions to return to school. Concerns for family acted both as a facilitating and impeding factor in the decision to return to school. Significant others, primarily spouses or family members, played a central role in the decision to return to school as well as in earlier delays of the return or nonpersistence in an earlier reentry attempt. Dissatisfaction with one's current work or career was an important influence, with many women hoping to make a shift from a dead end occupation to a more meaningful and lucrative career. Economic concerns were important to about half of the women interviewed, although several were reluctant to discuss such motives less they seem crass or mercenary.

While the use of interviews permitted identification of forces worthy of further exploration, there was also a notable inconsistency with the questionnaire data. A major geographical move was described as important to the decisions of only 3 of the 16 women interviewed. Without the questionnaire data, this factor might not have been identified as an important force in women's decisions to return to school. On the other hand, interviews with additional women who identified geographical moves as an event significantly influencing the decision to return to school might have produced different impressions of the relative importance of this event.

Emerging Types

Combined analysis of data from both questionnaire and interview responses of those women who participated in interviews permitted a more thorough anaysis of the complexity of forces influencing respondents decisions to return to school. It proved difficult to classify women in either an event-motivated or a reassessment-motivated category for two reasons: (1) most women either on the questionnaire or during the interview identified some event seen as critical to the decision, and (b) it was rare that the experience of such an event was not accompanied by evidence of life reassessment. At best, women could be placed on a continuum depicting the relative predominance of internal forces and external forces in their decisions to return to school.

It quickly became evident that a search for patterns which might explain the decisions of clusters of women was more likely to provide theoretical direction that an attempt to categorize the women into dichotomous groups. To systematically develop a typology of returning women, a summary profile was prepared for each interview respondent, extracting the questionnaire and interview responses most focused on the decision to return to school. Additional analysis led to the identification of four types to which each women was assigned a primary classification.

Women-in-Waiting had always wanted to return to school or had wanted to do so for years. The life events they mentioned as significant seemed to permit them to act on a decision made or considered for a long time rather than to compel the decision to return to school. Most of the women seen as fitting this type were from the 34 to 39 and 40 to 45 age groups, with the exception of one woman from the 22 to 27 age group. Late Bloomers typically had discontinued their schooling earlier because of a lack of motivation. After a relatively brief period of reflection, generally triggered by an identifiable event, they decided to return to school. All of those seen as primarily fitting this type were in the 22 to 27 age group. The greatest number of women could be identified as Change Seekers. They had been acting in family and/or worker roles with which they were no longer entirely satisfied. Like Women-in- Waiting, some of the Change-Seekers thought about returning to school for a reasonably long period of time. Once they decided to return, however, the women in this group tended to act on the decision by taking steps toward enrollment within a reasonably short period of time. The final type, Reluctant Returnees, was suggested by the experience of only one of the women interviewed. She had discontinued her schooling earlier because of marriage, and returned to school as an expectant mother in the throes of divorce. While she spoke of continuing her education in terms of her goals to complete something started earlier, she emphasized her desire to prepare for a new career that would enable her to more easily support herself and her child. She insisted, however, that she was not career-oriented and would much prefer to be a homemaker caring for her child.

CONCLUSIONS

The data from this study provide support for Brim and Ryff's (1980) warnings against the fallacies associated with interpreting causality from life events. They note that we tend to attribute causality to events that are most vivid, most recent, and biggest and that we tend to look for a single event as a simple cause rather than considering an interaction of events. Sixty-two percent of the women responding to the questionnaire were able to identify one or more events perceived as significant to the decisions to return to school from a checklist and 63% reported a trigger event. Despite the inclusion in the questionnaire of a checklist of events, however, it is important to note that a sizeable minority did not identify any such event as significantly influencing their decisions to return to school. It is also noteworthy that of those who did identify significant events, 54% identified two or more events, demonstrating the possible fallacy of interpretation when respondents are asked only to identify a single trigger event. The likelihood that a woman may experience an event associated with returning to school without it being related to her personal decision is further illustrated by an examination of responses to the event of divorce. While 28 of the 143 questionnaire respondents had been divorced during the 5 years preceding the decision to return to school, only 10 of these women saw that event as having a significant influence on their decisions to return to school, and only four saw it as a trigger.

The results of this study also reveal both the benefits and challenges to interpretation made possible through triangulation of research methodology. It is unlikely that the importance of geographical moves to the decision to return to school would have been recognized had the questionaire not been used, and it is unlikely that the changing relationship between self and society evident in women in their late thirties would have arisen as an issue for further exploration were it not for the interview data. The availability of questionnaire data made it possible to report that for a selected sample of 143 women only 25% of the noteworthy life events experienced were perceived as significant forces in the decision to return to school; the interview data made it possible to suggest that certain types of returning women may be prevalent in different age groups.

Finally, at a more theoretical level these results suggest that neither a mechanistic explanation for adult motivation for learning focused on the importance of stimulus events, nor an organismic explanation focused on internal change processes alone, adequately accounts for the dynamics involved in the decision to return to school. This decision appears to be influenced by a combination of both internal and external forces, and requires a theoretical explanation which takes into account the confluence of biological, social, cultural and historical forces.

IMPLICATIONS

Obviously, given the qualitative and descriptive nature of the data, generalizations to the larger population of returning women must be withheld until further study tests the conclusions reported here. Several suggestions for practice can be made, however, on the basis of these findings and supporting literature.

1. Bigelow (1982) and Regan, Paltridge and Terkla (1982) present findings in agreement with this research regarding the propensity for returning women to see their lives as transitional. Information on adult development may be useful in helping returning students understand their experiences are not unique or unusual.
2. Opportunities for self-exploration may be especially valuable for those women, often in their mid- to- late thirties, who are resolving issues of identity.
3. Opportunities for guided career exploration, information about available and lucractive career possibilities, and strategies for career decision-making seem to be a critical need given the number of women who viewed their career lives as transitional and the number who reported work-related trigger events.
4. While the role of critical life events in women's decisions to return to school or seek other forms of learning warrants further attention, we need to consider the impact of a broader range of events than the relational events typically referred to as important in women's lives.

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Learning about Leadership from Experience-
Preliminary Findings from a Study of Community Problem-Solving Group Members

Boyd Rossing and Robert Russell

Abstract

The paper presents preliminary propositions about the content and processes of learning group leadership principles through experience in community problem-solving groups.

Introduction

A substantial body of important research has been generated to help adult educators understand the nature of adult independent learning projects. An equally important source of non-formal adult learning that has received little attention in adult education research is the experiential learning that occurs as a by-product of adults' everyday experience. This paper presents preliminary interpretations of the initial data collected in a study of experiential learning that is still in progress.[1]

Community members acquire and exercise leadership roles with little or no formal training. Some writers suggest that group leadership and participation competencies are acquired through participation in community problem solving, community development and other voluntary community or political activities. (Schler, 1970; Biddle and Biddle, 1965). Participants develop community leadership knowledge, skill and inspiration through experience (Fear et al., 1985). They gain confidence, insight, and skill and begin to be viewed by others as a leader. Very little is known, however, about the effectiveness and consequences of experiential learning in performing this essential role in the building of community leadership capacity.

Empirical research on the nature and extent of learning which occurs through community problem-solving experience has been extremely limited. A few studies in the area of voluntary action report mixed results on the impacts of voluntary participation on participant learning (Schulman, 1978; Salem, 1978). A series of research studies (Hay and Apps, 1981) conducted at the University of Wisconsin in the 1970's investigated how adult educators can promote individual, group and community growth while working with community problem-solving groups. These studies identified a variety of impacts of community problem-solving participation on the growth of participants. Attempts to theoretically explain the process or content of learning about group participation and leadership through the participation experience are extremely limited.

Two theories are available that provided a starting point in designing the study and in initial analysis of results. The two frameworks are the distributed functions concept of group leadership and Kolb's experiential learning theory.

Distributed Function-Group Leadership Theory

A large body of research exists on the functions of task-oriented and group-maintenance leadership behavior in problem solving, decision-making groups (Benne and Sheats, 1948; Bradford, 1976). This is the concept that several functions are conducive to effective group functioning and that any member who performs any of these functions in a constructive, timely manner is exercising a form of distributed leadership.

Yukl (1981) presents a simplified composite of the most essential categories of each of the two types of behavior. The task-oriented leadership behaviors are: initiating-structuring, stimulating communication, clarifying communication, summarizing, and concensus testing. Group-maintenance leadership behaviors are: gatekeeping, harmonizing, supporting, standard setting and process analyzing.

The functional concept of leadership offers a set of tested propositions about effective group behavior. It makes no claims, however, about whether group members tend to acquire an understanding of these principles through experience. Thus the theory only provides an "initial" set of concepts for explaining the content of beliefs about group leadership acquired through experience.

Experiential Learning Theory

Lewin's research on group dynamics led to conception of a four-stage cycle to describe experiential learning (Kolb, 1984). The cycle is shown in Figure 1. According to Kolb "Immediate concrete experience is the basis for observation and reflection. These observations are assimilated into a "theory" from which new implications for action can be deduced. These implications or hypotheses then serve as guides in acting to create new experiences" (1984, p. 21).

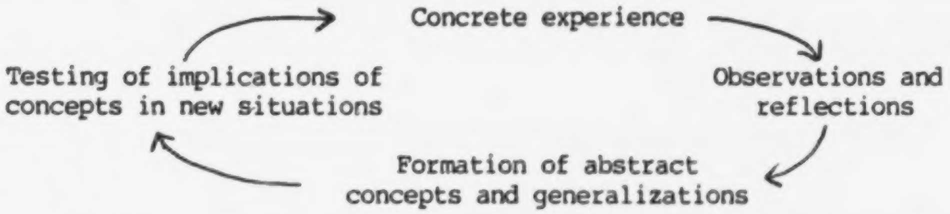
Concrete experience
Observations and reflections
Formation of abstract concepts and generalizations
Testing of implications of concepts in new situations

Figure 1: Lewinian Experiential Learning Model (as adapted by Kolb)

The principal limitation in using Kolb's theory to explain experiential learning in this study is that the theory is designed to prescribe a process by which learners can assume greater "initiative in defining what needs to be learned and in devising ways in which relevant learnings can be found and tested" (Benne et al., 1964, p. 32). For according to Bradford (1964, pp. 191-192) "Most individuals seem unaware that they themselves can engage in a deliberate process of learning from everyday events." The very purpose of this study is to examine that natural process of learning that Bradford questions.

Study Design

The purpose of the study is to investigate the content and processes associated with learning about group participation and leadership through experiences in voluntary community problem-solving groups. We are studying members of five community problem-solving groups in rural Wisconsin communities.

The groups selected for study were formed with the assistance of the Cooperative Extension community development agents for the purpose of analyzing community conditions and proposing or taking action to improve them. The groups are in rural communities of several hundred to a few thousand population. Generally membership is somewhat representative of the most active level of community residents. The group may or may not have some formal advisory relationship to local government. Such groups typically meet on a monthly basis and receive various forms of assistance from the county agent.

We conduct taped interview with individual members and explore what they have learned about principles that are important to effective group functioning. The interview also explores the experiential origins of learning and the process by which such learning occurs. In conducting the interviews we use an open-ended approach guided by certain objectives we hope to accomplish. We find it helpful initially to clearly explain the purpose of the study and to indicate that our goal is to help the person recall and reflect on what they have learned about leadership through participation. We then ask participants to tell us about the kinds of groups they have served on, to contrast the groups and to discuss how and why they became involved in community group work. During these preliminary discussions, we note comments the participant may make about principles for working effectively in a group. We then ask the participant to indicate any kinds of knowledge, attitude, or skill that they have found contribute to the success of group activities.

We note the ideas they mention and then take time to explore each idea. First we ask the participant to recall and describe a concrete situation where they experienced the principle being properly or improperly applied. Following Kolb's model we ask the individual to describe their feelings in the situation, to point out consequences of the behavior on the actor or actors, to discuss whether they feel some generalization can be drawn and lastly to indicate if they have observed, experienced, or practiced the principle in other groups. If the experience described occurred in a group other than the current community problem solving group we ask them to discuss application of the principle in the current group. Finally for each episode we ask the participant whether they feel they learned anything from the experience.

The interviews are highly fluid and require intense concentration on the part of the interviewer. Every attempt is made to bring about a natural, easy recall of important leadership principles and experience episodes without forcing the participant in any way. Evolving modifications in the interview design were described in an earlier paper (Rossing, 1985).

Our primary focus is on the understandings of experiential learning of leadership to be derived from the interviews. We are seeking concrete examples of leadership learning experiences. From a sampling of such examples, we hope to formulate some hypotheses on what people learn about leadership from experience and how they learn it. We also directly observe meetings of the community group and make tape recordings of the events for later transcription and analysis. The observations of community groups serve a supplementary purpose. They provide background on the group leadership context and will eventually be used as an aid in interpreting interview data. Findings from group observation are not included in this paper.

Limitations of Study Method

The primary source of data for examining experiential learning in this study is a post hoc interview. Initial findings of the study indicate that it is by no means easy for respondents to recall or reconstruct their learning from experience. While they may acknowledge that they have learned, they have difficulty recalling specific events and making discrete connections between events and the learning derived from them. As an illustration, one participant said "if you've been active for a good number of years like I have been it's difficult to remember specific things."

Interview data also relies on the basic ability of respondents to articulate a complex process. Respondent social desirability considerations must also be taken into account. Finally, it is important to note that Kolb defines learning as a "process whereby knowledge is created through the transformation of experience." (1984, p. 38). Whether a learner can go back to the experience and reconstruct through recall the pre-transformed experience that lead up to the learning is difficult to say.

Thus, while the interview method provides the most feasible and useful approach to initally explore experiential learning of group leadership there are serious limitations in the access this method provides to experiential learning. Therefore, propositions about the content and process of experiential learning derived from this study can only be viewed as preliminary hypotheses based on partial and potentially biased access to the phenomena of interest.

Data Analysis

Analysis of data in this study has been an ongoing process. Each interview is transcribed and reviewed for preliminary insights to guide further study. In addition, both researchers keep a running record of interpretations and impressions they have as they engage in various study tasks.

At the time of preparing this paper 15 interviews had been completed out of an anticipated 40. In order to provide some preliminary indications of patterns in the findings, insights from ongoing analysis of interview data were reviewed and a further analysis was conducted to develop tentative propositions, to provide examples and to identify commonalities and exceptions in the data. When data has been collected from all members of the sample a more exhaustive analysis will be conducted.

Preliminary Findings

The following section presents 10 very preliminary propositions about the content, process and moderating factors of experiential learning about group leadership. These propositions have some initial support from the early data and are presented to illustrate the kinds of insights surfacing in this research. They are not to be considered final conclusions and are offered at this point only for purposes of discussion.

Proposition 1. People in community groups generally acquire and modify beliefs about group leadership in a non-deliberate, unsystematic manner and usually without conscious awareness of the underlying process. Learning about effective and ineffective behavior does occur but instances of major modifications of basic beliefs about group leadership are rare.

Proposition 2. Participants in community groups form and modify beliefs about effective and ineffective leadership functions. Beliefs about maintenance functions are more prevalent than beliefs about task functions. The maintenance function mentioned most frequently is gatekeeping eg. "let everyone have a chance to speak." The task function mentioned most frequently is initiating-structuring eg. "you have to have some strong direction."

Proposition 3. Participants in community groups also form and modify beliefs about the composition and characteristics of specific groups and their effects on group effectiveness. Examples include "select motivated members" and more generally "people in the committee are not afraid. They feel good about themselves."

Proposition 4. Recognized instances of learning that occurred as a result of experience in a community group are rare, particularly instances of revisions in previous beliefs. When instances of belief changes are recalled they tend to be from situations early in the person's "career" of group participation. In one example a participant attempted to handle all aspects of a banquet, found it didn't work and has delegated authority and responsibility ever since.

Proposition 5. Some participants report that learning about group leadership has not occurred in some group settings. This occurrance is more common for long time veterans in referring to recent or current group activities.

Proposition 6. Two levels of significant experience patterns are discernible: episodes eg. specific events on a given date and chapters eg. a series of events associated with a group. Episodes are not likely to be recalled unless they are associated with high emotion, chapters are readily recalled and associated with belief principles.

Proposition 7. Few participants consciously endeavor to learn from experience in the cyclic manner proposed by Kolb. Examples of this process can be inferred from some interviews but rarely do participants recognize or describe such a process. The more common is description of a belief based on a pattern of experiences that can no longer be specifically recalled.

Proposition 8. Few participants consciously generalize beliefs about effective or ineffective group leadership principles from one group setting to another. Fewer participants cite instances where a principle learned in one group is consciously applied or tested in another group.

Proposition 9. Contextual characteristics serve to enhance or limit the likelihood that participants will learn from group experience. One evident factor is the novelty of the group experience. For example one participant indicated she picked up skills through her early church group involvements "anytime that you're involved in a group for your first time it's always a little worryfull. . ."

Proposition 10. Individual characteristics serve to enhance or limit the likelihood that participants will learn from group experience. One such characteristic is the level of self-confidence. For example "when you have a little bit more self-confidence you can look at a situation where you had some negative feedback and maybe learn more that way."

Conclusion

The initial results of this study suggest that the content of experiential learning about group leadership resembles the content of principles established by existing theories and research. The process of experiential learning, however, appears to be quite different than the process one would expect from Kolb's experiential learning theory. The insights to be derived from this research should be very useful in identifying supplementary educational roles and functions that might enhance the natural leadership development that occurs through participation in community problem solving activities.

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[1] Note: A revised paper based on additional data collected in the next 3 months will be prepared and distributed at the AERC Conference.

WORKERS' COOPERARTIVES: FREIREAN OPPORTUNITY IN THE WORKPLACE

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ABSTRACT

Based on evidence from a case study, this paper argues that workers' cooperatives offer an opportuity for Freirean problem-posing education with chronically unemployed workers.

INTRODUCTION

Paulo Freire is among the most frequently cited theorists in adult education literature. Yet, although his name may be ubiquitous, Freirean influence is not apparent in mainstream adult education practice in this country. Some reasons for this discrepancy between theory and practice are obvious. For example, the needs and the interests of the largely middle-class population which participates in American adult education enterprises do not, at least overtly, seem to include liberation from oppression among their educational goals; furthermore, the institutions (including most sponsors of literacy education) which offer adult education are, at best, committed to social improvement and, at worst, to maintaining the status quo, but not to fostering the social and political transformations which Freirean practitioners expect to precipitate. (Darkenwald & Merriam, 1983: 50-64; London, 1973) Yet opportunities appropriate for Freirean pedagogy abound. As McGinnis has suggested, Canadian adult educators have adopted a Freirean framework for their involvement with groups working to solve social and political problems such as poverty, sexism, and racism. (Kreitlow, 1982) American adult educators could easily follow their example - some surely have - but, to do so, they must adjust to working in the margins of conventional adult education practice.

This paper represents a beginning inquiry into the potential for unemployed workers, especially that group which I will define as "disemployed", to experience effective Freirean-style education for critical consciousness - gaining a kind of economic literacy - in such a marginal context: the workers' cooperative. My argument is based in large part on interviews conducted with eleven participants in the development of a workers' cooperative by and for the disemployed in a large, Midwestern, industrial city. Many of these workers are convinced that their experience with the Energy Recovery Group (ERG) left them with the critical perspective necessary to continue shaping their economic destinies by making informed choices. As Arnie W explained it, "This growth has made me wonder where do I fit ... Everybody deserves a decent break ... [I'm] striving for that same power again ... [I'm] ready for leadership." (ERG Interviews, 1985)

THE "DISEMPLOYED" AS OPPRESSED PEOPLE

"Disemployment" is a condition roughly identifiable with "structural" unemployment but it has a broader connotation. Disemployed people are not just between jobs. They are people who seem to be locked out of the labor market by a constellation

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of factors including class, race, sex, and skill. Most of them are no longer counted in the government's unemployment statistics because they are "discouraged", by official definition, and have stopped looking for work. A recent study sponsored by the U.S Catholic Bishops revealed that at least 13% (rather than the 7% counted by the Department of Labor) of all Americans are affected by unemployment - either unemployed, discouraged, or underemployed (engaged in full-time work with wages inadequate to support themselves). (PASTORAL LETTER, 1985: paragraph 137) Several studies, including the Bishops', indicate that the economy is not generating nearly enough jobs which offer adequate pay, decent working conditions, and job security. Indeed, some economists have suggested that the economy is designed to maintain a pool of underutilized workers to be available for jobs in the "secondary" labor market, i.e., for casual or temporary jobs. (Gordon, Edwards, and Reich, 1982) Whether through design or neglect, our economy includes a substantial number of disenfranchised workers. Given the economic realities that shape their current alternatives, they are clearly among the population that Paulo Freire would identify as "oppressed".

The "dominant" culture's system of what Freire calls banking education has imposed on the disemployed some of its most compelling myths. In spite of their experience, the disemployed still tend to believe, for example, that their lack of a decent job is a direct result of their own inadequacy and/or unworthiness, that if they had only studied harder or longer, been more ambitious, more conforming, or, perhaps, born a different race or sex, they would be comfortably employed. Public policy solutions to joblessness have proven to be an extension of the same banking process. From 1914 , when the rationale for vocational education found an audience in Congress, to the current Job Training Partnership Act, the dominant American approach to unemployment has been training and re-training - attempts to shape the unemployed workers for the nation's perceived labor force needs - with no guarantee of a "decent" job. Consistent with Freire's insights, job training programs treat workers without jobs "as marginal men [sic] who deviate from the general configuration of a "good, organized, and just society...[,]as the pathology of the healthy society, which must therefore adjust these 'incompetent and lazy' folk to its own patterns."(Freire,1970: 60) Such programs tend to ignore the job shortage, operating as if the most profound needs of the disemployed were vocational training and resume writing.

Freire's corrective to the disastrous results of banking education is "conscientization" - the recognition of the social, cultural, political, and, especially, the economic realities - instead of the myths - that shape the lives and the perceptions of the oppressed. Reflections upon such realities will lead, Freire tells us, to action. The pedagogical approach necessary to acheive such praxis and, eventually, to transforming one's social reality is "problem-posing." The most relevant problem facing most disemployed workers is their need for a good job. By addressing that problem directly - creating and sustaining their own jobs - they are clearly on the way to transforming a painful social reality.

WORKERS COOPERATIVES AND PROBLEM-POSING

Workers' cooperatives - businesses which are democratically run by workers who are also the owners - have many of the right characteristics to encourage conscientization among disemployed workers. Unlike its oppressive social context, the coop's structure is, by definition, non-heirarchical. No matter what management system the workers may choose for it (some are managed in a very conventional, authoritarian manner), the coop is theirs and they are the source of ultimate power and decision-making. The decisions involved in starting a business - acquiring licenses, permits, insurance, tools, utilities; establishing bookkeeping systems, work rules, marketing plans; and, most dramatically, identifying sources for working capital - require the development of considerable sophistication about existing conditions and institutions. Each decision "poses" a new problem, a new chance to change, rather than reproduce, the conditions of oppression both within the coop and in the larger society.

Upon discovering, for example (as the "cooperators" in this case study did), that a targeted market is inaccessible because the existing "competitors" in that market are apparently in collusion, coop members might be faced with two alternatives: attempt to enter into the collusion or identify a strategy to change the conditions which foster the collusion. (ERG interviews, 1985: Jack G and Arnie W tapes) The way in which this problem is posed becomes critical. If the survival of the business becomes the paramount "problem", then the members must accept the oppressive conditions which collusion might impose - engaging in pay-offs, reducing wage-scales, lowering production standards, misleading consumers, or, even, sacrificing their democratic structure. Choosing, instead, to defy the collusion - through legal action, public exposure, or political pressure - may jeopardize the business but, if successful, offers the greater long-term benefit of helping to shape a more equitable economic climate.

It is at the point when such problems arise that an educator's role can be critical. Reflecting upon his experience with a cooperative, Frank Adams wrote, "the teacher's role was limited to posing problems, (including arguing), linking the owner-members with external resources as needs arose, providing reinforcement ...I do not believe teaching to be a neutral task." (Adams,1982: 17) Worker-owners must solve thousands of business problems each year. Their decisions shape their personal financial situations, their work lives, and the economies of their communities. A Freirean teacher/student who is engaged with them in analyzing both the nature of the problems and the impacts of their solutions seems to have a significant opportunity to foster the transformation process.

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ENERGY RECOVERY GROUP: A WORKERS' COOPERATIVE FOR THE DISEMPLOYED

ERG was founded as a vehicle to heighten public consciousness about job creation policy (or the lack of any) as much as an effort to create jobs. Members of a two year old local chapter of a national grassroots organization , Jobs, Our Best Solution (JOBS), sponsored ERG because they wanted to engage more disemployed people in the struggle to create nationwide full employment policies. The members of JOBS, many of whom already held "good" jobs, had discovered that disemployed people were too busy with the personal demands of economic survival to become very involved in social activism, even if the "cause" concerned them directly. They also recognized that policy experts knew how to create job training programs but not how to create jobs for this population. ERG, then, was more than an effort to employ a few people. It was an attempt to create a corps of grassroots "experts" - especially among the disemployed - in the field of job creation.

ERG began, in the spring of 1982, with a host of resources marshalled by JOBS: a targeted product and market, insulation services for low and moderate income households; training services, including the University Extension; and minimal start-up capital. Recruited at first through JOBS' allies in churches and neighborhood groups and, quickly, by the workers themselves, the membership of the coop began at five and was, at its highest,about twelve. Jack G, the JOBS organizer, was hired by the members as their "acting manager" but he refused any permanent position on the governing board. All but two of the members were men and most were under thirty. At least two had been in prison and no more than three had held "decent" jobs in the year before joining the coop. Indeed, many had never held a long-term job and were, in Jack G's words, used to living on a combination of "welfare, women, and petty crime."

The coop survived as a democratically-run home repair and weatherization business until the fall of 1984. At that point, chastened by a hostile market and still handicapped by their lack of diversified experience, the members hired a tough new manager (to replace Arnie W, one of the coop's founders, who had himself replaced Jack G about six months earlier) who insisted that they elect a governing board of outsiders to bolster his authority. Almost as soon as the coop converted to this more traditional business arrangement, the fragile structure of accountability and mutual respect, which members had been struggling to build for some thirty months, collapsed. Already lively disputes over the coop's scarce assets devolved into battles on work sites. Theft of tools and, even, embezzlement became commonplace. The new manager fired most of the members and he is, today, the coop's only member.

The fact that a combination of altered structure and always treacherous market factors finally destroyed ERG is not nearly so remarkable as the fact that it survived for thirty months. The democratic structure seemed to foster commitment. Jack G attributes this survival to a deep desire among members to have more control over their lives.

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> What people most wanted was a liberation community, a group of people with whom personal and political struggles would somehow fuse and make each other more real and more important. It never worked as a business: the business died eight times. People kept picking it up out of the ashes. . .Once the truck broke down and the only way to keep going was if people put their entire earnings into it. It made no sense for people with no money in a shaky business to pay, in very real terms. . . they were paying for self-respect . . . pretty seriously oppressed people can and will participate in their own liberation if given a chance - they need to perceive a job as theirs . . . that was exciting enough to them and important enough to make it worth it to go through the kinds of transformations that they did. (ERG Interivews: Jack G tape)

Jack G's analysis, then, suggests that the problems posed both by the coop's democratic structure and its goal of acheiving some measure of occupational and economic stability for its members engaged them in the process of their own liberation. Given Jack G's role as a JOBS organizer, his insights would be suspect were they not supported by the (less eloquent) statements of other members. Almost all of them are wistful about the coop and the hopeful period it represented in their lives. They speak of "learning how money came through", acquiring "skills I've always run from", and learning to be "mannerable and respective" (sic) of each other. They are proud of tenures as coop officers (eight of the eleven I interviewed had been officers at some point). And, perhaps most importantly, all would like to use the insights they gained at ERG to become involved in another workers' coop effort.

CONCLUSIONS

Although impressionistic, the data from ERG strongly suggests that cooperatives offer an environment conducive to the growth of its disemployed members. The tenacity of the coop's membership in the face of numerous and daunting obstacles suggests that the perceived rewards (which were not financial) were significant. What were these rewards? Some were clearly related to learning how businesses work, finally understanding, for example, as was the case with Arnie W., how much one man can earn by hiring another man's labor. Others were less tangible and seemed to involve the search for a haven where the dynamics of the oppressive outside world were not recreated. According to a consultant who worked with ERG, a coop can be used to design a model of "how relationships can take place." (ERG interviews: Chuck T tape)

Given the fact of ERG's demise, the exact nature of its appeal to disemployed workers will never be known conclusively. What it offers, however, is reason to believe that some forces for transforming the consciousness of workers are operating in cooperatives. The exact role of education in the ERG process remains ambiguous, in part, because ERG never had a regular teacher. Certainly, teachers cannot and should not be saviours but, perhaps, if ERG's support system had included a teacher/student self-consciously engaging in the problem-posing process and following the example of Frank Adams by arguing for their solutions, it may have improved its chances of survival.

The current landscape is rich with opportunities for further exploration of the potential for Freirean educational successes in the coop setting. Hundreds of companies, consulting groups, church leadership bodies and universities are directly involved in employee ownership and employee management experiments. Although the majority of these efforts have job retention goals, a network of groups involved with coop start-ups exists. The Sommerville, Massachusetts based Industrial Cooperative Association consults with fledgling cooperatives around the country. There is a lively worker ownership movement and support community, which includes Twin Streams Educational Center, in North Carolina. A few of these efforts are with disemployed workers. Fresh analyses of coop efforts in the past, in this country and elsewhere, may reveal more (or less) support for the theory that coops offer a unique potential for Freirean education.

The most exciting potential for involvement lies in the numerous community based efforts to garner resources for coop development. Only through engaging in such projects will we better understand how, if at all, adult educators might facilitate conscientization in the workplace (and elsewhere).

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THE INFLUENCE OF COGNITIVE STYLE UPON ADULT NURSING STUDENT PERFORMANCE, ATTITUDE TOWARD LEARNING AND PREFERENCES FOR LEARNING ENVIRONMENTS

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ABSTRACT

A study of the influence of cognitive style on adult nursing student classroom and clinical performance and attitude toward learning with contrasting content areas and methods of instruction.

Literature that addresses the domain of cognitive field dependence(sensitivity)/field independence indicates that style is not a significant factor in overall achievement of students engaged in mainstream, institutionally-sponsored learning (Witkin, Moore, Goodenough, & Cox, 1977). Persons with contrastingly different cognitive styles achieve about the same in school or college settings when aptitude is comparable. However, little has been done to investigate learning patterns of successful adult students as they cope in the institutional setting. From the growing body of literature concerning cognitive style, a picture has emerged of differences in the social and cognitive characteristics of field dependent and field independent people. The applied research that has been done suggests that FD and FI learners naturally prefer certain approaches and environments, but are capable of learning to use alternative strategies more appropriate to particular tasks and circumstances.

Field dependent learners, for example, require greater external structuring of learning situations and greater direction from the teacher, and learn best when content is organized in smaller units (Witkin & Goodenough, 1981). They prefer to learn with others and learn best when frequent feedback from the teacher and their peers is provided during learning. They like to seek skills demonstrated and are more likely to model or copy teacher behaviors in their own performance (Kirby, 1979). In contrast, FI learners are able to structure their own learning situation if necessary, are more self-directed as learners, and learn equally well whether content is organized in larger or smaller units. They prefer to learn alone and like to have feedback from the teacher when learning has been completed. They don't care whether skills are demonstrated or not and are less likely to model of copy teacher behaviors in their own

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performance (Simpson & Walker, 1983). Given the unique characteristics adult students bring to higher education, more attention is warranted.

The purpose of this study was to explore in more detail the learning patterns of successful adult learners with contrasting cognitive styles. It is hoped that results of this type of research may contribute to a better understanding of effective self-help assistance that can be provided within institutions. Also, results may enlighten facilitators and adult learners themselves about the conditions and skills associated with learning how to learn in an institutional setting.

Three primary questions were addressed in this study: (1) Does cognitive style influence adult nursing student overall performance when students experience different types of content and contrasting methods of teaching?, (2) Is there a relationship between student cognitive style and problem solving ability and interpersonal skills in the clinical portion of their training?, and (3) How are attitudes toward learning and preferences about the learning environment related to cognitive style differences?

Research Methodology

The population used in this study consisted of 48 second-year nursing students enrolled in an Illinois community college associate degree nursing program during 1984-86. All but one participant were female.

Research Instruments. Several research instruments were used for data collection. The first was the Grouped Embedded Figured Test (GEFT) developed by Herman Witkin. Scores from the GEFT indicate the degree of field dependence/field independence on a continuum from (0), being extremely field dependent to (18), extremely field independent.

The second instrument was a seven-point scale Assessment of Clinical Skills (ACS) developed for this study. The assessment tool was used to evaluate students' ability to problem solve (PRO) and skill at interpersonal relationships (IPR) as judged by their clinical instructors.

The third group of instruments were teacher-made achievement tests (TMT) developed by the individual instructors to assess student in-class progress and the clinical performance rating form (CPR) which was developed by the Department of Nursing, Kishwaukee Community College to assess overall clinical competence.

To gather information about student attitude toward learning the Autonomous Learning Index (ALI) developed by the Southern Illinois Collegiate Common Market was used. The

Learning Preference Questionnaire (LPQ) developed by Susan Walker based upon salient cognitive style characteristics, was used to gather opinions about the learning environment.

Research Design. The study was conducted under quasi-experimental conditions. Students rotated at eight-week intervals through four different nursing content areas: Medical/Surgical, Psychiatric, Pediatric, and Obstetrical Nursing. Two methods of instruction were provided by the instructors. A lecture method was used for all groups of students in the first and the third eight-week periods and a discussion method in the second and the fourth eight-week periods. Attitude toward learning and learning preference were assessed periodically during the study. Performance of the students was assessed through results of formative and comprehensive eight-week tests, and clinical task rating by their instructors. Each subject content and corresponding clinical experience was taught by the same instructor throughout the year, except within two eight-week segments of pediatric nursing due to instructor absence because of leave.

In order to find the effect of cognitive style on student achievement, all students were subdivided into three groups according to their degree of field sensitivity/field independence. The first and fourth quartiles were used to identify extreme low and high scores, respectively.

Data Collection. A part of data was collected from student records. These data included age, aptitude scores (Nelson Denny Vocabulary Raw Score Nelson Denny Comprehension Raw Score and Nelson Denny Reading Rate) along with a math aptitude score derived from a department math aptitude test on the first attempt when the student applied to the program.

Other data were collected by the research instruments described earlier. All subjects were given the GEFT at the beginning of the first eight-week period. The ALI and LPQ were given at the beginning, during and near the end of the two-year period. During each eight-week period students were given several exams and clinical tasks. The scores earned were computed as a final grade for each period. Observation was used as a method of judging clinical competence. By the end of each period the instructors using ACS, rated students' clinical skills. PROS and IPR scores were collected at the same time.

Data Analysis. Descriptive statistical analysis was used to indicate the overall students' academic backgrounds and cognitive styles. The relationship between student cognitive styles (GEFT scores) and clinical skill (IPR and PROS scores), clinical performance and achievement (PCG scores and national test scores), attitude toward learning and learning preference were analyzed by Pearson Product-Moment correlations. The 2X3X4 analysis of covariance was used to determine whether field sensitive students differed from field-independent students on the achievement (PCG scores) when they learned through different content areas and teaching methods. Aptitude scores and math scores were used as covariates. This type of analysis was chosen based upon the assumption that at the second level of the nurses training program no one content area would significantly influence achievement results in any other content area.

Results

Generally, the research subjects had a wide distribution of aptitude scores, particularly the vocabulary and reading rate, and math scores. Ages of the students ranged from 18 to 46 years. A larger proportion of student GEFT scores fell into the category of extreme field-independence (35.42%) than fell into the field-dependent category (25.0%). Field-dependent scores ranged from 0 to 7 and field-independent scores from 15 to 18. The mean score for all was 10.65.

The correlation coefficients showed that there was a significant correlation between student cognitive styles and clinical skills but in a negative direction. Field-dependent cognitive style students were rated as better in performance with skill at interpersonal relationships ($r = -.322$, $p < .05$, $N^1 = 29$). However, there was no significant correlation between student cognitive style and student performance as measured either by the average grade percentage earned from four eight-week periods, clinical task performance, problem solving, or scores earned from National League for Nursing Tests.

From the preliminary analysis it was found that only one covariate--math score--of the four covariates identified was significantly related to overall performance grade (PCG). Therefore, in analysis of covariance, only math scores were used as a covariate. When the covariate was controlled, it suggests that there was no significant difference of PCG on cognitive style and teaching method effects. Only subject matter content was significantly different ($F = 12.583$, $P < .001$). Further, no interaction between or among cognitive style, teaching methods and content on PCG was found.

A post-hoc comparison on content tested by the Scheffe procedure at .05 level of significance showed that adjusted mean scores of psychiatric nursing (95.55) were significantly different from the adjusted mean scores of Pediatrics (93.21), Obstetrics (92.46), and Medical/Surgical (91.56). Among the last three, however, nonsignificant mean score differences were found. This result suggested that there is no effect of cognitive style on students' overall performance when they learn

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[1] Undefined cognitive style students were not counted in the correlation analysis.

within different content areas and by different teaching methods.

Opinions and Preference About Learning. In analyzing data about attitude toward learning (ALI) no significant relationship was found between learning autonomy and style. However, field independence related to student cognitive style was highly correlated with items pertaining to (1) desire to learn new things, (2) curiosity, (3) early completion of assignments, (4) setting one's own goals, (5) not being required an assignment due date, and (6) not closely following a textbook in a course. Opinions held by field dependent student nurses contrasted significantly with opinions of their cognitive style counterparts on these items.

Data related to preference for learning environments that students judged to be helpful (LPQ) indicated that field independence was highly correlated with preferences for (1) computer assisted instruction, (2) use of essay test questions, and (3) use of learning games or simulations. Significant negative correlations were found between cognitive style and two particular preferences regarding learning environment, namely, (1) opportunity to question the instructor and (2) clinical evaluation conferences. Field independent students judged these types of experience significantly less helpful than field dependent students judged them to be.

Discussion. In response to the first research question cognitive field-dependence/independence appeared to have no significant affect on overall adult nursing student achievement. This is consistent with results of previous studies that have compared style influence on achievement.

Regardless of instructional method used, achievement as measured by the mean percentage course grade and National League for Nursing Test scores was not significantly different between four different content areas or between two contrasting methods. Although significant difference was found between one content area and the other three, this difference was attributed to a departure in grading criteria by one instructor, rather than a significant difference in student performance.

Analysis of results related to the second research question supported that a significant negative relationship did exist between student cognitive style and performance of clinical interpersonal skills. Though a negative relationship appears to also exist between cognitive style and clinical problem solving as well as overall clinical performance, the correlation was not significant. This result also appears to be consistent with the literature. The more field-independent the student, the lower her clinical interpersonal skills were judged to be by her instructor when compared to her field-dependent counterpart. This suggests that indeed the field-independent student nurse is less social and out-going in relating to her peers, patients and supervisors.

Finally, the attitudes and preferences of student nurses in this study were consistent with what is reflected in the literature. Subscription to external referents and structure was characteristic of FD students in this study. Independence and self direction characterized the attitude of field-independent students in this study. Conversely, field dependent students were likely to indicate less security with being in control of their own learning and were more desirous of interaction with their instructors.

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Librarians and Self-Directed Learners

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ABSTRACT

Librarians are in a unique position to assist adults pursuing individual learning projects. This paper focuses on the ways that a group of twenty-two public librarians perceived their day-to-day interactions with self-directed learners.

INTRODUCTION

Over the past two decades, the phenomenon of self-directed learning has been the focus of considerable adult education research. Much of this research has dealt with the characteristics of the learners and the learning, while facilitators of self-directed learning have been largely neglected. This study looks at one group of those facilitators--public librarians--and their participant perceptions.

From its beginnings in the Nineteenth Century, the public library has been a source of information and assistance for adults learning on their own. As early as the 1880's, it was called the "people's university" (Adams, 1887), and over the next several decades, the public library took an active role in educational programs and resources for workers, immigrant groups and women (Birge, 1981).

The adult education movement of the 1920's and 30's further spurred the interest of librarians in adults who sought "self-education" or who were "reading with a purpose." During this period, many libraries developed reader's advisory services, which provided individual library users with reading plans on subjects of interest to them.

During the 1940's and 50's, these services were absorbed into more generic services for adults. While the library's educational mission continued to be discussed in the literature, interest in self-directed learning did not resurface on a large scale until the 1970's. Then, from 1972 to 1976, the College Board sponsored the Adult Independent Learning Project, which operated in several public libraries throughout the United States. As part of this project, librarians were given special training, and, rechristened Learner's Advisers, served as learning facilitators for library users. Often, Learner's Advisers worked with library users over a period of weeks or months, and their duties encompassed such "non-librarian" activities as needs assessment, assistance in goal setting, and planning individualized programs of study (Mavor, Toro, & DeProspo, 1976).

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The Adult Independent Learning Project engendered two studies (Carr, 1979; Reilly, 1981) of the role and activities that the Learner's Advisers performed. Carr investigated what he called the "critical incidents" that took place between the Learner's Adviser and the learner. Reilly's focus was the services that the Learner's Advisers provided as part of their learning facilitator role. Beyond these two studies of specially trained librarians, there has been little consideration given to the ways that public librarians perceive their day-to-day interaction with self-directed learners. This gap in the knowledge serves as the problem for the current study.

METHODOLOGY

The setting for this study is a county library system serving a medium-sized metropolitan area in the Northeastern United States. During 1984, twenty-two librarians (about one third of the total population of public librarians in the county) were interviewed concerning the ways in which they perceive their interactions with those self-directed learners who use the public library as a learning resource.

Since the librarians' perceptions were the focus of the study, a qualitative methodology--the semi-structured interview--was selected. The use of this qualitative mode was seen to best elicit what Bogdan and Biklen (1982) call "participant perspectives": the ways in which people define their own situation.

The semi-structured interview was developed from themes that emerged in pilot interviews conducted in the summer of 1983, from the library science and self-directed learning literature, and from the researcher's own educational background and previous public library work experience. The interview format also allowed the flexibility to pursue new themes as they arose.

Data analysis was conducted using a modification of the constant-comparative method (Bogdan & Biklen, 1982). With this method, preliminary themes are identified, field notes written, and future interview directions determined at the conclusion of each interview, while the more formal analytical work takes place only when data collection is complete.

FINDINGS

Librarians' Perceptions of Self-Directed Learners

In order to understand how librarians in this study perceived their interaction with self-directed learners, it is helpful to first understand how they viewed and characterized the learners. Virtually all of the librarians interviewed identified self-directed learners as a recognizable segment of library's user community. However, within this view of self-directed learners as a discrete entity, there was an apparent reluctance on the part of the librarians to further describe a "typical" or "composite" learner. As one librarian noted, "As soon as I draw a parallel, somebody's there to break it."

Despite this reluctance, a classification did emerge from the librarians' words which reflected two perceived categories of learners. One category might be called the "Confident Learners." These learners, as one librarian stated, "have had some success in school," which, she felt, gave them that confidence to learn on their own. Other librarians described learners who were "eating up" their learning, "soaking it up," being people who could "really deal with this material." They were also seen as "very, very skilled," "capable," "competent," with a "strong sense of purpose." Many of these adjectives are reminiscent of the characteristics that emerged from the biographies and autobiographies of self-taught individuals studied by Gibbons, Bailey, Comeau, Schmuck, Seymour and Wallace (1980).

The other category that emerged from the words of the librarians might be called "Timid Learners." These learners were described in somewhat halting and tentative terms: they were "fragile," "fearful," "weak," "a little lost," "reluctant to ask," "inarticulate," and "wandering."

This classification perhaps exemplifies different places on the continuum of self-directed learning readiness (Guglielmino, 1977). Despite the perceived differences, one librarian proposed an overriding characteristic of both Confident and Timid Learners:

> They have in common their willingness to ask. Sure, there are a lot of people who want to learn things who just cannot take that first step. I guess that's basically it: that they're willing to take a chance to get our attention and ask for help.

The Librarian's Approach to Interaction

Just as the librarians interviewed were somewhat reluctant to categorize or typify self-directed learners, they seemed reluctant to categorize their own approaches to interacting with those learners. It is significant to note that no strong typology of interaction emerged as it did in their descriptions of the learners. While several librarians indicated some consistencies particular to their approaches with Timid Learners, only one librarian directly linked her description of Timid and Confident Learners to her probable approach:

> I'd probably be more motherly to the sort of person who looks, you know, weak and in need of a lot of support. I'd be more joke-y and relaxed with a person who is very confident.

Many of the librarians described their approaches by starting with some basic "maxims." These maxims were voiced over and over again, and seemed to fall into three categories:

(1) The importance of all questions.

> That's it more than anything: just being considerate and treating every question like it's important.

> We never, never give the impression that, "Golly, how can you be so stupid as to ask for that."

(2) The pro-active approach.

> You don't sit around waiting for the people to come to you, you go out and approach them.
>
> So we definitely don't just say, "The books are over here." We try to question them and see if the initial question really reflects what they want to know; or if that is just their way of getting into the subject.

(3) The "invisible line" of privacy.

> I have to know when to stop and realize there is a limit with some people that I can go.
>
> I think you just have to know at what point you have to stop.

Once the librarians moved beyond these "maxims" to speak about individual cases, they stressed the importance of evaluating and responding to each interaction based on all the cues present in that particular interaction. One librarian described the process this way:

> You can see in a matter of a very few minutes whether you're getting the right question. I've been guilty of not giving the right material because I have incorrectly interpreted their needs. But you learn each time. There's nothing like a lot of experience. But it shows in their faces and their hands and the way they move their bodies. You can't just look at the words that come at you.

Many of the librarians interviewed for this study seemed to indicate that they, like qualitative researchers, have to look beyond "the words as they come at you" and find the meaning behind the words. When this meaning is discovered, it is possible that the librarian and the learner mutually arrive at a point where truly facilitative interaction takes place.

DISCUSSION

The librarians' perceptions - of the learners, of their approaches to interaction, of the essence of the interaction itself - suggest a consistent, almost natural process that appears at once highly professional and extremely sensitive to the integrity of each learner and each interaction. Apparently the librarians employed their simple classification of learners only as a tool to recognize and overcome potential communication barriers. Similarly, the "maxims" that emerged seemed to reflect an essential recognition that the learning process should be defined by the learner and not by the librarians.

While guidance is certainly given as part of "facilitating," and the guidance is skill-and knowledge-based, the librarians in this study seemed to share belief that accurate, effective guidance must be directed by the learner, and that the directions emerge only as surely as the learner's purpose is allowed to emerge. The librarian's initial perceptions of the learner and the specific approach to interaction primarily serve to enable the discovery of the learner's individual meanings and purpose. If meanings, often hidden behind various styles of expression, remain undiscovered, the learning process is interrupted and perceived by the librarians to be unsatisfactory.

Librarians are in unique positions to be facilitators of self-directed learning. It is apparent that they recognize this, take it seriously, and through understanding born of experience, are usually good at it. The most important idea emerging from this study may be the librarians' sharing of a basic understanding: to successfully facilitate self-directed learning is to allow it to be as individual a process as possible.

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THE POSTMORTEM AUDIT: A RESEARCH METHODOLOGY FOR BUILDING INDUCTIVELY-DERIVED PLANNING THEORY

by

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Abstract

This paper describes a research methodology known as the Postmortem Audit (PMA) that provides a structure for the systematic analysis of program failures with the goal of developing generalizations about what not to do (and by implication, what to do) when planning educational programs for adults.

Introduction

The literature on program planning in adult education is largely normative in nature; it contains descriptions of how planning should be done rather than how planning is done. Consequently, any "principles" which attempt to explain planning are based on someone's idealized view of what constitutes good planning rather than on systematic study of planning as it occurs in practice. With a few exceptions (Pennington & Green, 1976; LaForest, 1973), planning models found in the literature are deductively-derived and emphasize a sequence of steps and tasks that, when properly completed, will produce the outcome and design specifications for an educational activity. Only rarely does one find reports of attempts to generate theoretical propositions by systematically analyzing program planning as it occurs in the natural settings in which practitioners operate. Even rarer are attempts to generate planning theory by studying unsuccessful programs.

Analyses of individual program failures have been reported in the literature (Smith, 1974; Smith, 1975; Lacy & Smith, 1976; Hanson, 1982; Lewis & Fockler, 1976) with the intention of highlighting errors in planning that should be avoided. Most often the programs analyzed are ones which were cancelled because of insufficient registrations although Lewis & Fockler (1976) described a different type of failure. Sork (1981) suggested not only that general principles of planning might be derived from the systematic analysis of program failures, but that there are at least three different types of program planning failures that should be the subject of such analysis. Building on Sork's three types, Martin & Varcoe (in press), suggested a fourth type of failure that should be included in any analysis.

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Types of Planning Failures

Following are descriptions of the four types of failures as adapted by Sork, Kalef, & Worsfold (1986).

Type 1 Failures

Planning for the program is partially completed but is terminated before implementation. Organizational resources are expended on planning with the full intention of offering a program, but for some reason, a decision is made to terminate planning. Example: A planning group has been organized and has met several times. Content experts may even make specific proposals outlining in some detail what they are prepared to offer the potential participants. But before the program is offered planning is terminated and the resources expended do not produce any benefit.

Type 2 Failures

Planning for the program is completed and the offering is publicized, but it does not attract sufficient interest in the form of enrollments or registrations so it is cancelled. Type II failures are indeed costly since all of the resources devoted to planning and publicizing the program are lost. Example: Several months have been devoted to planning a program, the instructors have been identified, facilities scheduled, materials ordered, and promotion completed. The deadline for preregistration passes (or the first session of the program takes place) and not enough people enroll, so the program is cancelled.

Type 3 Failures

Planning for the program is completed, the offering is publicized, and enough people enroll so the program is offered. But the program does not provide what the participants had expected so they either fail to complete the program or they react so negatively to it that no consideration is given to offering the program again in its original form.

Type 4 Failures

The program is offered and the participants express satisfaction, but there is clear evidence that the program failed to achieve the objectives for which it was designed. Although some useful learning may have been a consequence of the program, and may account for the satisfaction expressed by participants, the learning does not correspond with the objectives of the program.

Although all four types of failures may be found in many adult education agencies, certain types of agencies may be less likely to experience one or more types of failures than others. For example, cancellation due to insufficient registrations may be irrelevant in training settings where the offering of a program is not dependent on achieving a specified level of participation. There may be settings in which the reactions of the participants to the program is not a factor in deciding whether or not to repeat the offering.

Some care must be exercised when identifying and classifying failures since there is often a fine line separating success from failure. For example, activities should not be classified as Type 1 Failures if a conscious decision is made to disengage from planning after weighing all the costs and benefits of continuing. Not all discussions and initial planning sessions should lead to the design of a program. There are many good reasons to terminate the planning process so only those situations in which planning has progressed beyond the normal point of disengagement should be classified as Type 1 Failures. Those experienced in evaluation are not surprised to have some percentage of participants react negatively to a program. It is only when the percentage of negative reactions exceeds the norm for the agency or organization that a program should be classified as a Type 3 Failure. Similarly, many programs fail to achieve all the objectives included in the plan. It is only when the failure to achieve intended outcomes exceeds the norm that programs should be classified as Type 4 Failures.

Analyzing Program Failures

In discussing the analysis of program failures, Sork (1981) proposed applying the metaphor of the postmortem examination used in medicine. He suggested a set of questions that could be applied to each type of program failure and referred to the procedure as a Postmortem Audit. His questions were designed to provoke analysis of the costs/consequences associated with each failure, the factors that contributed to each failure, and the actions that could be taken to reduce the incidence of each type of failure. Martin and Varcoe (in press) developed the Post Mortem Audit Tool that structures the analysis by the phases or steps of a program planning model. More recently, Sork, Kalef, and Worsfold (1986) developed a set of instructions and forms for use in analyzing each of the four types of program failures. Their procedure is organized around a six-step general planning model that provides a framework for studying the factors that may explain program failures. The steps in this model are (1) analyze planning context and client system, (2) identify needs, (3) develop objectives, (4) formulate instructional plan, (5) formulate administrative plan, and (6) develop summative evaluation plan. Most planning errors can be associated with one of these steps.

Errors associated with the first step include failure to identify crucial characteristics of the client system, unclear articulation of the mission and goals of the agency, incomplete knowledge of the environment in which the agency operates, unstable policy base within the agency, and so on. Errors often associated with the second step include basing decisions on unreliable information, seeking the right information from the wrong group, seeking the wrong information from the right group, failing to establish priority of needs, and employing alternatives to needs assessment when a needs assessment is required. Potential errors associated with the third step include failing to specify objectives, attempting to achieve too many objectives during a single program, developing objectives not directly related to needs, and setting criteria above or below the capabilities of the learners. When formulating instructional plans common errors include selecting the wrong method of delivery, including too many instructional activities, using materials and devices that are outdated or unreliable, omitting essential exercises or events, and failing to encourage transfer of learning from the training situation to the work setting. Errors in administrative planning include designing incomplete or poorly-focused promotion plans, failing to provide essential support services for the learners, pricing programs on the basis of faulty assumptions, and ignoring Murphy's Law. In planning for summative evaluation common flaws include relying on participant reactions to assess effectiveness, assuming that adults will revolt if asked to demonstrate what they have learned, assessing only intended outcomes, and delaying evaluation until the final few minutes of the program. Although the Postmortem Audit (PMA) may be used for organizational development purposes, it can also be used as a method for the systematic collection of data that will contribute to the development of planning theory—the purpose which is the focus of this paper.

Characteristics of the Postmortem Audit

The Postmortem Audit (PMA) is a systematic procedure for analyzing unsuccessful educational programs. In one sense it is a form of evaluation which can reveal not only the weaknesses of single programs, but can also uncover weaknesses in planning and administrative functions that effect whole categories of programs. If carried to completion, a comprehensive PMA provides information that can be used to improve the planning of programs and to build inductively-derived planning theory. Program planning activities represent substantial costs to the organization. Any time that resources allocated to planning tasks do not result in the offering of a successful program, unnecessary costs are incurred—costs that can be reduced substantially through careful analysis of the factors contributing to unsuccessful programs. Following are the tasks associated with the PMA.

1. Specify purpose and scope of the audit. It is important at the outset of the audit to clarify why it is being conducted, the period of time it will cover, the program areas that will be included, and the types of failures that will be analyzed.

2. Assemble necessary information. In some cases assembling the information will require retrieving any printed records related to program failures. In other cases, it will be necessary for those involved in the planning of programs to summarize their recollections and to make estimates of expenditures made during the planning of specific programs.

3. Classify programs by "F-Type." Each type of program failure is recorded and analyzed in a slightly different way. This means that it is quite important to classify each of the programs included in the audit by the proper "F-Type" defined above.

4. Analyze programs by "F-Type." Once the programs have been classified, the analytical work begins. Each program failure must be analyzed individually. First, basic descriptive information about each program is provided, then a series of analytical tasks are required to identify the reasons for and consequences of the failure.

5. Record findings of analysis. Contained within the materials are separate forms to complete for each type of program failure. Accurate and complete recording of findings on these forms is essential because all subsequent analysis will be based on these data.

6. Summarize findings by "F-Type" and record on summary forms. The primary intent of the PMA is to reveal patterns of planning errors that can be corrected. In order to identify these patterns it is necessary to summarize information about all the program failures in each type. At the end of this step there should be one completed summary form for each of the types of program failures included in the audit.

7. Analyze summaries by "F-Type." At this stage it becomes possible to study the summary form for each type of failure in an effort to identify patterns of errors that recur and that account for most of the failures within each classification. The summary forms will also make it possible to assess the cumulative costs, in both financial and non-financial terms, of each type of program failure during the time period covered by the audit. At the end of this step it will be possible to describe the probable reasons why most of the program failures of each type occurred.

8. Formulate type-specific recommendations and record on forms provided. From the causes of failure identified in the previous step, it now becomes possible to specify the steps that can be taken to prevent future program failures of each type.

9. Analyze summaries across types. When the summaries for each type of program failure are analyzed together it may be possible to discern patterns of errors that apply to two or more types or that cut across all types. Such errors may reveal a more complicated problem that can only be solved through organizational change (structure, policy, procedures, and so on) rather than through changes in the activities of individual planners.

10. Formulate recommendations across types and record on the form provided. This step is particularly useful for the organization in which the audit is being conducted, but the recommendations should be based on theoretical propositions enriched by the analysis carried out in earlier steps.

11. Prepare action plan to implement recommendations. This step is again of primary benefit to the organization in which the audit is being conducted, but also provides a means of follow-up to determine if the changes are effectively implemented and, if so, whether the overall incidence of program failures has been reduced.

Concluding Comments

As a research methodology, the PMA has the usual weaknesses of data collection strategies that rely on recall and interpretation of the respondent. The ability of the researcher to assess the validity and reliability of the information provided is clearly limited. But the methodology seems to have promise as a means to gather large amounts of information about program failures that will add to our understanding of how program planning occurs in the myriad settings in which adult educators work. Because carrying out a PMA will require a significant commitment of time by the participating organization, the procedure has been designed to produce some clear payoffs in the form of specific recommendations that should reduce the incidence of program failures and, ultimately, the costs of planning. The PMA is now in a pilot testing phase. Anyone wishing more information on the current version of the materials should contact the author.

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YELLOW BRICK ROAD OR GREAT DISMAL SWAMP: PATHWAYS TO OBJECTIVES IN PROGRAM PLANNING

by

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Abstract

This paper (1) proposes an operational definition of the concept of need for use by program planning theorists and practitioners, and (2) presents six alternatives to needs assessment that can be used to justify and focus planning activities.

Introduction

For two decades educational theorists have been debating the utility of the concept of "need" as a basis for justifying and focusing program planning activities. In recent years several writers have asserted that the field of adult education would be much better off if the concept of need was either defined more precisely (Monette, 1977; Griffith, 1978; Brackhaus, 1984) or, lacking that, exorcised from the lexicon altogether (Mattimore-Knudson, 1983). It is clear from even a cursory review of the literature on program planning that the concept of need and the process known as needs assessment are deeply embedded in the theory and practice of program planning. It is also clear that a bewildering variety of meanings have been associated with tne concept of need and that dozens of processes that should be considered conceptually and procedurally distinct have been referred to as needs assessment techniques.

Much of the confusion surrounding the concept of need and the process of needs assessment in adult education is due, in part, to the broad range of entities that the concept has come to represent and, in part, to the lack of a working definition of need that is specific enough to allow easy differentiation of concepts and is consistent with the more general definitions found in the literature. Various "discrepancy" definitions have been favored over the years, but they tend to be too general to serve as working definitions. After completing one of the most thorough reviews of the literature ever published, Witkin (1984) concluded that " . . . the term need is properly used only as a noun with the denotation of a discrepancy or gap between some desired or acceptable condition or state of affairs and the actual or observed or perceived condition or state of affairs" (p. 6). Although many of the definitions found in the literature are indeed consistent with Witkin's specification, the definitions tend to remain too general for the specific tasks associated with program planning in adult education. For example, Beatty (1981) proposed the following working definition: "Need is the measurable discrepancy existing between a present state of affairs and a desired state of affairs as asserted either by an 'owner' of need or by an 'authority' on need" (p. 40). Although she makes a useful distinction between prescriptive needs, which are asserted by authorities, and

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motivational needs, which are asserted by the owners of the needs, the definition does not evoke a clear and consistent image of what a need is. There may be some advantage in developing a more explicit definition of need that is compatible with the discrepancy definitions found in much of the literature, but that makes more explicit what a "need" is and that will allow practitioners to "know one when they see one."

A possible disadvantage of proposing such a definition is that it will be viewed as too restrictive by both scholars and practitioners. In order to address this potential problem, it may be useful to clearly distinguish "needs assessment" from other means to justify and focus programming efforts. Indeed, there seems to be a wide range of means available to programmers which are quite acceptable alternatives to needs assessment. They are alternatives in the sense that they represent different pathways to objectives. Used singly or in combination with needs assessment, they represent conceptually unique and operationally distinct means of justifying and focusing planning activities.

Toward a Working Definition of Need

Although it has been fashionable to attach various adjectives to the term "need" and then to define the different types of needs that result, the definition presented here will avoid that temptation. It may indeed be quite productive to categorize types of needs once they are identified, but such a practice seems more relevant to the task of priority setting than to need identification. Because the definition is intended for use in program planning, it does not treat need as an internal state of the individual. Although such conceptions of need are common in the literature (Peters & Boshier, 1976; Robbins, 1981), they are not useful for program planning because planners require external manifestations of feelings, drives, motives, and so on before objectives can be formulated. In addition, definitions that treat needs only as internal states of individuals ignore the proposition that organizations and communities can have needs as well. Following, then, is a proposed working definition of need for use by those who engage in the study and practice of program planning:

Need is a statement (oral or written) which contains the following two essential elements:

(1) A verifiable description of a performance, capability, or outcome which is thought to exist.

(2) A hypothetical description of, or specifications for, a parallel performance, capability, or outcome which might exist in the future and which is considered more desirable than (1).

Given this definition, a need becomes an overtly expressed statement that a program planner can use to justify and focus programming activities. Adopting such a definition requires the planner to specify the present condition (1) and the desired condition (2) at a level of detail that reduces ambiguity, eliminates the confusion of means and ends, and forces the programmer to use "need" as a noun rather than as a verb. If need is defined in this way, then needs assessment becomes the process of collecting information and formalizing value judgments required to (1) describe needs and (2) evaluate needs to determine the priority that will be assigned to each. Note that by its very definition, identifying needs involves making value judgments because it requires someone to describe a more desirable condition. Although it may appear to some that needs assessment is a value-free process of information collection and analysis, this is clearly not the case since value judgments are required both in describing needs and in determining priority among needs.

Alternatives to Needs Assessment

Although it is quite possible—some would say quite desirable—to force a needs assessment paradigm on every situation requiring program planning, such a practice can distort the meaning of needs assessment, cause frustration among programmers who may feel quite satisfied with information obtained using other means, and ultimately discount the practical utility of the method for informing decision makers. There are alternatives to needs assessment that can provide quite sufficient information for justifying and focusing many programming efforts (Sork, in press). Some of these are referred to in the literature as forms of needs assessment; others are based on discussions with practitioners. These alternatives should be considered when either the resources are not available to conduct a proper needs assessment, or when the nature of the planning task does not require the identification and validation of present states of affairs and the specification of more desirable states of affairs. Figure 1 represents twelve pathways to objectives that are possible if these six alternatives to needs assessments are used individually or in combination with needs assessment to justify and focus planning. Using only needs assessment represents a thirteenth pathway that is not indicated in the figure.

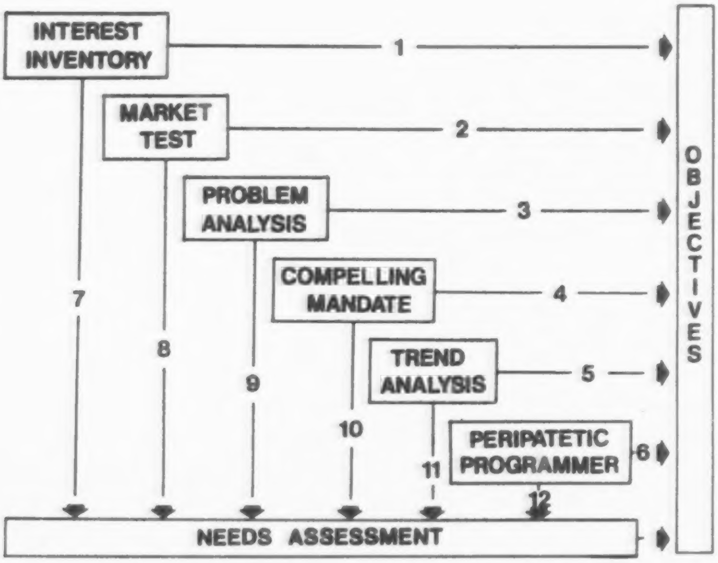

Figure 1. Pathways to objectives in program planning.

Pathway #1—The Interest Inventory

When clients are asked to indicate their preferences among a listing of potential program topics their responses are based on their interests. The expression of interest in program topics seems to have little power to predict participation in programs. But the interest inventory can provide limited justification and focus for programming efforts, although the information is not nearly as useful for developing objectives and evaluating programs as are needs. The interest inventory and its variants are particularly useful in situations where a programmer must limit offerings to those with greatest potential demand.

Pathway #2—The Market Test

In some situations it may be economically justifiable to outline the basic structure of a program, prepare a description, advertise the offering, and then wait and see how many enrollments result. Nowlen (1980) has observed that

> This approach of offering a sample to test the market has the advantage of allowing potential participants to respond not only to a phrase in a list of topics but to a specific program description, resource person, day, time, location, and price. Furthermore, the commitment of time, money, and attention provides a much firmer basis for predicting future enrollments by similar adults than merely indicating a topic on an interest inventory. (p. 31)

There are ethical issues related to the use of this approach that are often not acknowledged (Singarella & Sork, 1983). Arranging to participate in an educational program is often a psychologically, socially, and physically demanding activity. If someone makes the commitment to attend a program then discovers that because of insufficient demand the program was cancelled, their motivation to enroll in future programs and their confidence in the provider may be affected. Application of the market test alternative to needs assessment should be considered only after the ethical questions have been resolved. Deciding and arranging to "consume" an educational program is a very different process than buying a new product while strolling through a grocery or department store.

Pathway #3—The Compelling Mandate

The justification and focus for some programming activities comes from a source, or is presented in such a way, that no further information is needed. In some cases the impetus and focus are provided by an individual in a position of power, influence, or authority; in some cases by a rule, regulation, or law; and in some cases by a large number of potential participants. Situations in which the compelling mandate drives the planning process are usually characterized by clear definition of direction and little or no disagreement about the appropriateness of the program. In fact, it is likely that an inquiry about doing a needs assessment would produce rather puzzled reactions (verbal and nonverbal) from those responding to the mandate.

Pathway #4—The Trend Analysis

A disadvantage of the discrepancy definition of need is that it does not easily accommodate projected or anticipated conditions which would be undesirable. That is, situations in which the present state of affairs is satisfactory (so no need exists), but where analysis reveals that the situation will soon change to one that is undesirable. In such cases it would be quite important to take immediate action in order to prevent the undesirable from occurring. Trend analysis is the process of monitoring conditions over time and projecting changes in the conditions based on knowledge of the past. Trend analysis requires the collection and analysis of time-series information, a resource intensive activity especially if the information must be collected rather than retrieved from reliable sources.

Pathway #5—The Problem Analysis

Many planning models use problem analysis as an organizing paradigm. The impetus for some planning activities comes from the realization that a problem exists and that some attempt should be made to resolve, eliminate, or moderate the condition. Problem analysis usually results in a clarification of the present state of affairs; it is assumed that the desired condition is that the problem no longer exists, or that its impact is reduced. After the nature of the problem is clarified, attention shifts to consideration of means to eliminate the problem, education usually being one of several means which might be used. Like in the case of the compelling mandate, the problem may be so well defined and the action required to resolve it so clear that the thought of doing a needs assessment would be considered bizarre.

Pathway #6—The Peripatetic Programmer

Some individuals seem to have a natural talent for identifying program ideas with great promise. It may be the product of an innate or intuitive sense they have developed, it may be the result of a free-ranging creative mind, or it could be the result of insights gained from hard work. Whatever the origin, the individual programmer comes up with a novel program idea that has great potential, not only for generating revenue but for addressing an important or emerging issue or capitalizing on a latent interest in a large number of people. It is not clear how the talents of the peripatetic programmer can be isolated or even how they can be cultivated. The important thing is that their ideas are successful even though they are not buttressed with hard data and cloaked in the rhetoric of needs assessment.

Pathways #7 through #12

There may be instances in program planning when the initial pathway selected is one of the alternatives to needs assessment— that is pathways #1-#6 in Figure 1. But for any number of good reasons, the final pathway may involve combining one of the alternatives with needs assessment (pathways #7-#12). For example, a promising program topic may be identified through an interest inventory, but the decision is made to carry out a needs assessment to more clearly focus the planning activity. In this example, pathway #7 represents the route taken to clarify objectives for the program. It may also be possible to use two or more of the alternatives in combination as a substitute for needs assessment.

Conclusion

It's time to reform planning theory in adult education. Because existing theory embeds needs assessment as an essential element in the process, practitioners are forced to call whatever means they employ to justify and focus their work a needs assessment lest they be accused of improper planning. Distinguishing needs assessment from other pathways to objectives and acknowledging that needs assessment is not always the best pathway might provide welcome liberation from the confines of a limited and limiting conceptualization of what constitutes legitimate means of justifying and focusing planning activities.

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Learning How to Learn:
A Phenomenological Analysis of Adult 'Eductive' Learning

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This paper offers a phenomenological account of selected essential structures through which a person moves in learning how to learn.

Introductory Remarks

Learning how to learn is a process which has become the focus of increasing attention in adult education literature. Two recent accounts (Smith, 1982, and Cell, 1984) serve as excellent examples of this interest. For Smith, 'learning how to learn involves possessing, or acquiring, the knowledge and skill to learn effectively in whatever learning situation one encounters. If you possess the necessary knowledge and skill, you've learned how to learn...'(19). Cell claims that 'all significant experiential learning is a change in behavior, in interpretation, in autonomy, or in creativity, or a combination of these changes' (28).

A full understanding of accounts of the process of learning how to learn which are presented in adult education literature can be seen to rest on conceptual foundations which can be brought into clear focus. Learning requires both the recognition that something is already known and that something more can be known. Philosophers have long claimed that knowing anything at all requires deliberate conscious acts involved in knowing that we know something. Analogously, I claim that a person's learning anything at all requires that person's personal knowledge that (s)he learned it.

But learning that we learned something requires that we know how we did it. What reflective moves did we make during the process of learning-within a concrete learning project? If the reflective moves involved in one learning project can be discovered, is it possible to generalize in some degree from these moves to analogous reflections in other concrete learning projects?

The conceptual analysis of learning how to learn requires carefully formed answers to these two questions. If this kind of generalization is not possible, then it is not possible to provide the conceptual framework for showing that a person indeed can learn how to learn. If this generalization is possible it is a personal process, and there must be one or more essential structures in the process of learning to learn constituted of relevant phenomena which provide the grounds for this generalization. Learning how to learn therefore may be understood as and through a careful phenomenological auditing of the ways through which a person learns that (s)he learns. Each way is a special instance of how a person discovered the reflective moves in learning that (s)he learned something in one concrete case and that these moves were transferred to other concrete cases.

My paper offers a thought experiment which consists of a brief phenomenological investigation in which I (1) clarify certain relationships between 'knowing _that_ I know' and 'learning _that_ I learn'; (2) identify phenomena constituting several _essential_ _structures_ in learning how to learn; and (3) point briefly to some important implications of these ideas about adult 'eductive' learning for both practice and research in matters of great moment for the subject-matter of adult education.

'Knowing that I Know' and 'Learning that I Learn'

We may begin this experiment by asking what the relationship is between 'knowing' something and 'learning' something. For example, does learning algebra or word processing precede knowing either of these? Or, paradoxically, must we first know something before we can learn it? The 'common sense' response is that learning something logically precedes knowing it. But consider the customary meanings of these two terms which are found in _The Oxford English Dictionary_. 'Knowing' something means (a) apprehending or perceiving something, or (b) comprehending or understanding something. 'Learning' a focussed subject-matter means (c) acquiring knowledge of this subject, or perhaps a skill, as a result of experience, study, or teaching. But (a) and (b) are not identical or coextensive meanings. They are not the same thing, although both are presented as the meaning of 'knowing'. More aptly stated, (a) and (b), respectively, are the earlier and the later stages of a process of entering into a knowledge of a subject and of coming to know it more fully. In this sense I first _ap_prehend algebra and then later (much later, as an algebraist) _com_prehend algebra. To 'prehend' is to take hold, grasp, or seize something. Therefore, I first reach out to grasp something and then actually hold it 'in hand' (if a skill) or in my consciousness (if the focussed subject is knowledge, or something grasped through ideas).

Knowing something, therefore, is a process beginning with (a) and moving through (b). But 'learning' algebra, in the sense of (c) above, that is as acquiring knowledge of algrebra, means both (a) and (b) above: I haven't 'learned' algebra until I 'know' it both as having _ap_prehended and _com_rehended it. We are led to conclude at this stage in the thought experiment, therefore, that whereas I can partially know algebra without having fully learned algebra, I surely cannot have learned algebra without fully knowing it!

The 'common sense' view is that I must learn something before I can know it, that learning data processing logically precedes knowing it. Yet, minute reflection demonstrates that learning something is only possible if this something is already known! These are contradictory positions, and yet they both appear to be true.

There is, however, a way in which these contradictories can be reconciled, and this interpretation becomes vital in an understanding and explanation of learning how to learn. Suppose that 'knowing' and 'learning' are the same *kind* of process, and that they are distinguished only as *degrees* of this same kind of process. Hence, 'I must know in order to learn' means that I must first perceive, or reach out and grasp some subject, as indicated in (a) above. And 'I must learn in order to know' means, as in (b), that I must comprehend and understand, or actually hold in my consciousness, a subject.

Adult educators might prefer the title of this section of the paper to be 'knowing that I learn' and 'learning that I know', since this is the much more immediate rendering of major practical problems in adult learning and education than my more philosophically-oriented title above suggests. But one of my claims is that concreteness lies not primarily in the domain of practical and everyday affairs, but in the theoretical and the philosophical explorations of the problems and resolutions to these problems which persons construct for their everyday lives. This means that persons, their problems, and their learning projects in the everyday world can only be understood and resolved when the philosophical rootages of these are excavated and laid out for everyone to see and to explore for themselves. Then it can be seen, for example, that 'knowing *that* I know' underlies 'learning *that* I learn', and that the latter is absolutely fundamental to learning how to learn.

Philosophers long have claimed that knowing anything at all in sense (b) requires deliberate reflective moves facilitated by the conscious acts involved in knowing *that* we know something. And we have seen above that learning something requires *both* that that subject be already known, in sense (a), as perceived, apprehended, taken hold of, or grasped, *and* that the subject be more fully known, in sense (b), as understood, comprehended, and actually held in one's consciousness. Moreover, it seems clear from my investigation thus far that learning anything at all requires one's personal knowledge *that* (s)he learned it. Knowing *that* I know is reflexive; it is knowing and knowledge checking back upon itself, the knowing process auditing itself. Analogously, learning *that* I learn is also reflexive; it is learning turning back upon itself, cross-checking, testing out, auditing itself. Both reflexive forms focus on thinking and discourse, on the suppositions and presuppositions of the predications of knowing what is known and of learning what is learned.

Essential Structures in Learning How to Learn

Knowing and learning constitute the same *kind* of process, but they may be distinguished as differences of *degree* within this same process. There is already a degree of knowing something, a knowledge of this same thing in lesser degree, as we begin to learn that same thing. Learning is always knowing something more than what is already known. There is an orientation and direction toward the future in learning. It is not what is (a) *per*ceived or *ap*prehended that is learned, but rather (b) what is *con*ceived or *com*prehended. And although (a) and (b) are the same kind of process, they are distinguished as degrees of this process such that (b) is a stage much further along in this process. Therefore whereas 'knowing' and 'learning' are not identical, the 'known' and the 'learned' are identical. To unpack what a person has learned is to describe what (s)he knows, and this can be demonstrated only through reference to concrete instances of the known and the learned. A person's having knowledge of concrete subjects is identical with that person's having learned these concrete subjects in some way(s). This is one *essential structure* in learning how to learn.

An additional *essential structure* in learning how to learn can be identified. Although to know and to learn are not identical, they can be related phenomenologically in this way. 'To know' is the focus of a person's acquisitions in consciousness in their staticity, whether one says that (s)he wants to know something, or merely that x. y, and z are the sorts of subject-matters one might possibly want to know out of all of the possible sorts of things one might want to know. One describes knowing something, or *to know* something, by saying what is the case, whereas one describes learning, or 'to learn' as what (s)he is doing, or as what is yet to be done. And learning is always in some degree knowing that is yet-to-be done, or always more fully to be accomplished. Learning is knowledge yet- to-be enacted and gained.

To have knowledge is to have the power to do something, and a description of what this particular knowledge is is the precise description of what this particular enabling power is. Knowledge is both possessing and having this power in hand. Learning something is *both* the process of coming into the possession of knowledge *and* of having this power in hand, such that what has been learned is this knowledge *fully* possessed and *fully* in hand. A phenomenological description of the stages through which this process moves is both an identification and a description of additional *essential structures* of phenomena and clusters of phenomenon relevant in any understanding of learning how to learn. Among some easily identifiable *essential structures* are the following ones:

(1) There is a stage at which I can be said *not to know that I do not know something*. There is at least something in particular that I do not know (out of the indeterminately large number of subject-matters I might be able to learn, but as yet have not learned). In this case I do not know that I have not learned it unless I am asked the focussed question of whether I know such and such or not.

(2) There is a further stage at which I can be said to

know that I do not know what I want to know or need to know. Knowing something in particular has become for me a relevant problem. I have somehow learned *that* I have not learned what I want to know or need to know.

(3) There is a stage at which I *know that I want to know or need to know something in particular*. I have learned that I need to learn this.

(4) There is a stage at which I *begin to know this something in particular*. I perceive it or apprehend it, without comprehending it yet.

(5) There are many additional stages *in coming to comprehend what I want to know*. But in comprehending it I must know *that* I know it. And really having learned it, I must have learned *that* I learned it. But knowing *that* I know and learning *that* I learned it are distinct processes. It is not the knowledge gained which is transferable, but the *knowledge content as felt, as transferred from one felt place to another*. This is my definition of a metaphor. Learning *that* I learned, have arrived at knowledge of something, is always a performed metaphor. Learning *that* I learned something in some context (within the circumstances in a concrete situation) at one time demonstrates that I have succeeded. It further suggests that I can do it again... and again..., although I cannot be certain of this. I must try it out in order to see whether this is really true. Trying it out in this way is experimentation, the form of experimentation which thought experiments are. Suppose I try it out. Suppose that I move through the stages above in a variety of contexts of distinct concrete subject-matters. Suppose that I do it again and again. I come to know *that* I know a variety of subject-matters in a variety of concrete cases. Again and again I learn *that* I have learned. This is enacted through metaphor (Stanage, 1986).

Adult 'Eductive' Learning in Theory and in Practice

As an adult I have already built up a stock of experiences, including repeated experiences of learning *that* I have learned something. It is possible retrospectively to describe each of these phenomenologically if I wish to do so. Each description can be the foundation for an analysis of *how* I came *both* to apprehend *and* later to comprehend something. Through these successive descriptions of *how* I learned what I finally came to know I have learned *how* I learned what I came to know. Continuing these descriptions in the most careful terms I learn how to learn, This has been made possible principally through intuiting certain stages in coming to know something and through a description of these as *essential structures*. They are *essential structures* in learning how to learn. *How* this is done thus becomes an auditing process. I have learned how to learn, and I can learn something, therefore, in a variety of ways. In Smith's terms, as an adult I can learn through such modes as self-direction, collaboration, and more formalized institutional studies. My phenomenological account also provides a conceptual foundation for Cell's study of kinds of experiential learning.

In any case, our feelings, experiencings, and reflectings are the foundations of these contexts (Smith) and kinds (Cell). They become grounds, originations, and beginnings (but are never 'causes') of our learning. But even these contexts and kinds of processes of learning to learn cannot be clarified and understood if the conceptual grounds supporting them only account for them as atomistic and discrete classifications of what persons do in practical situations. Learning how to learn cannot be grounded conceptually in these kinds of atomistic encapsulations of knowledge. Learning how to learn requires both (1) one's personal voyage through the essential structures I have laid out in phenomenological terms and (2) one's own audit of this personal journey. In this latter sense I, and each of us as a person learning how to learn, must be able to draw up a formal and systematic reckoning of the ways through which I learned how to learn. This must be enacted in ways both validated and verified through the evidence which I and other persons are able to provide. This evidence is immediately available through the retrospective attestations of my (and of others') feelings, experiencings, and reflectings.

All of this is made possible, I believe, in the light of adult education characterized as a human science and as the enactment of, and the systematic investigation of, the phenomena constituting the adult 'eductions' of person, specifically of persons' free and deliberate motives for acting (Stanage, 1986). Adult 'eductions' are adults' feelings, experiencings, and reflectings, and they are metaphorizings.

The signficance of this thought experiment should be clear for adults, adult learning, and adult education. Each of us can come to see that we can become more autonomous in our conduct. We know that we can learn how to learn to do this, but the main problem has always been to provide the theoretical foundation for saying clearly what we believe we are able to do in 'everyday' life. I have tried to address this major conceptual problem. The more we understand how we learn to learn the more personal responsibility we reasonably are able to assume for all of our learning projects in concrete situations.

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'THREATENING THE PRIESTHOOD':
The potential for social transformation through nonformal education

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ABSTRACT

The theories of Basil Bernstein have proven to be useful tools for providing educators with insights into the formal education system. These same theories are used to assess the potential of nonformal education to facilitate social transformation.

INTRODUCTION

Nonformal education is an elusive and complex concept, but it is not new. It has existed since Buddha and Christ addressed their followers in open air forums, and Socrates taught in the Athenian market place. Interest in the concept has been renewed in recent decades, however, as disillusionment with the formal system has occurred. Its extensive use in Scandinavia and Third World countries has further aroused the curiosity of some educators concerning its potential to alter social structures. It is the intention of this paper to examine that potential from the theoretical perspective of Basil Bernstein. The complex abstraction of his theories, combined with the unorganized nature of nonformal education, makes analysis awkward. For that reason, his concepts and the definition of nonformal education are briefly explained before an analysis of the relationship between them is undertaken.

BERNSTEIN'S MAJOR CONCEPTS

Consistently throughout his writings, Bernstein has examined the role of education in reflecting, creating and reproducing social structures. He postulates that "how a society selects, classifies, distributes, transmits and evaluates the educational knowledge it considers to be public, reflects both the distribution of power and the principles of social control" (Bernstein, 1977, p.85). In exploring the structures and relationships within and among curriculum, pedagogy and evaluation, he has introduced three major concepts, viz; classification, framing and codes.

Classification Bernstein defines classification in terms of educational knowledge as: "the relationships between contents" (Bernstein, 1977, p.88). When classification is strong, contents (i.e. subjects) are well insulated from each other by strong boundaries. Thus, the knowledge within each subject is protected from the influence of other subjects. Weak classification on the other hand, draws knowledge from a number of diverse subject areas that are accessible because of weak boundaries. It results in problem-based, rather than subject-based, education. Bernstein draws a parallel between these forms of classification and the principles of social order. He suggests that subjects that are strongly classified will both mirror and guide the form of the social order. Bernstein states that more stable social orders will be formed and reproduce themselves when strong classification creates for the learner a strong sense of membership and forces choices between alternatives. There is a "gradual realization in the student of becoming different from others and of belonging to a particular category or even self-conscious group" (Cherkaoui, 1977, p.559). Membership loyalty to subject areas, schools and social classes result. At the same time, since the contents are clearly defined, the control by the teacher over what may be transmitted is decreased. What is 'legitimate' knowledge is determined not by teachers or learners, but by those in control of the education system. Knowledge becomes one area through which class power

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structures and hierarchies are reproduced (Apple & Wexler, 1978). In situations where knowledge is subdivided and well insulated, it is transmitted by authorities who "view their own knowledge or disciplines with the jealous eye of a threatened priesthood" (Bernstein, 1967, p.353). Consequently, the more "pure the categories of knowledge", the more "monolithic [the] authority systems" that serve the "élitist functions" (Bernstein, 1967, p.353). Thus, the concept of classification extends beyond the relationships between teachers and learners, schools and non-schools, to those with control of the knowledge and those without.

At his most abstract level, Bernstein relates classification to control of production, social transformation and social reproduction. Although Bernstein began by discussing classification of knowledge primarily in terms of schools, his later works related it to the workplace. In that milieu, strong classification means that there are strong distinctions between, for example, the skilled and unskilled, the workers and managers. Bernstein concludes that strong and separate categories establish the order of society and maintain a strong social division of labour: they preserve the classifications and "suppress potential cleavages, contradictions and dilemmas" (Bernstein, 1982, p.321). Resultant hierarchies and power relationships also determine what are legitimate 'meanings'. At Bernstein's least abstract level 'meanings' can be interpreted literally in reference to words and language; at his highest level of abstraction, it refers to social and class structures. According to Bernstein, these meanings (or structures) are threatened when insulation between categories weakens and the categories begin to blur. This in turn threatens the ruling classes who then exert their power to force a return to the established, legitimated structure (Bernstein, 1982).

Framing Framing, in terms of educational knowledge, gives the structure or the form in which knowledge is transmitted and received. It defines the relationship between the teacher and the learner: "Thus frame refers to the degree of control teacher and pupil possess over the selection, organization, pacing and timing of the knowledge transmitted and received in the pedagogical relationship" (Bernstein, 1977, p.89). Strong framing is equivalent to reduced options; weak framing is equated to many options.

At the pragmatic level, in the educational setting, strong framing means that the teacher is more powerful, the curricula and syllabus explicit, the progession criteria clear and competitive relationships common. Weak framing allows a variety of pupil-teacher relationships, brings the community into the classroom and blurs the boundaries between what may/may not be taught. In the more abstract terms of social transformation and reproduction, strong framing relates to control in the workplace. When framing is strong, those with the power explicitly control the temporal and spatial forms of the production. In concrete terms, this means workers have little, if any, control over the selection, organization, pacing or timing of the production undertaken. Production is a "repetitive, individually performed, strongly paced, explicitly sequenced divisive act" (Bernstein, 1977, p.182). The functions of workers are sharply distinguishable, relationships between those groups (categories) are stable, and workers' skills are not interchangeable. Alternately, weak framing results in production that is co-operative and group based: there are opportunities to vary the conditions, sequencing and pacing of the workplace; and ownership of the production process is shared among workers and supervisors.

Codes Together, classifications and framings determine the basic organizing concepts or themes in society. In the educational context, these codes refer to the underlying principles which shape curriculum, pedagogy and evaluation. In the workplace, codes determine the method, type, pacing and goals of production, as well as the division of labour. In terms of social structures, these basic, underlying principles determine what is legitimate in society as defined by those with power and social control.

Bernstein distinguishes, and gives names to, different permutations of weak or strong classification, and weak or strong framing. The collection code, for example, results from strong classification and strong framing. It creates and reproduces a society in which there is a highly divided, particularistic labour force that has little control over the method, type, pacing or goals of production. Strong classification makes transportability of skills or knowledge between categories difficult for workers and supervisors alike. On the other hand, weak classification and framing result in an integrated code.

A change from a collection code toward an integrated code involves changes in the classification and framing of knowledge, which in turn changes the structures, the distribution of power and the principles of control in society (Bernstein, 1977). Bernstein viewed integrated codes as having the potential to create an egalitarian education and a new integrated society based on a collective system of beliefs and order (Bernstein, 1977). When integrated codes establish the underlying themes in society, co-operation replaces competition. The educational system no longer socializes individuals into positions of acceptance or authority. Instead, it socializes individuals into "new knowledge structures, higher order 'general' skills for a changing division of labour, egalitarian styles and strategies for coping with ideological diversity" (Smith, 1976, p.2). If weaker classification occurs between education and work it will also help to blur the distinction between skilled and unskilled; between workers and managers (Bernstein, 1982). Transportability of skills and greater control over the workplace situation and rewards, indicate weak classification and weak framing.

Such a blurring in roles and responsibilities could create a significant change in the present hierarchical work world. Further, an educational system that creates, reproduces or maintains weak classification and weak framing could alter social structures. There are those who argue, of course, that such a direct correspondence is not possible--that intuitively and empirically we can identify areas of dissonance and contradictions between the educational system and social structures. (Hand, 1981). It is important to recognize that even if the relationship between the educational system and social structures is only partial, to the extent that correspondence does exist, a change in the educational system will alter the social structures. In order to determine if nonformal education is such a system, one must clearly understand its nature (Evans, 1981; Paulston, 1972).

NONFORMAL EDUCATION

Nonformal education is an amorphous concept, defined partly in terms of what it *is*, and partly in terms of what it is *not*. It occupies a middle position along a hypothetical continuum from formal education to informal education and, although it differs from both, it embodies some characteristics of each. It is defined as: "...any organized educational activity carried on outside the framework of the formal system to provide selected types of learning to particular sub-groups in the population, adults as well as children" (Coombs, 1973, p.11). This definition reflects both the acceptance of learning as a lifelong process, and the importance of a wide range of organizational options. Formal education, on the other hand, is defined as a "hierarchically structured, chronologically graded 'educational system', running from primary school through to university and including, in addition to general academic studies, a variety of specialized programmes and institutions for full-time technical and professional training" (Coombs, 1973, p.10).

The distinction between nonformal and formal education is perhaps clearer than that between nonformal and informal education. Informal education is "unorganized and acquired from one's own experiences" (Coombs, 1974, p.8), and refers to the learning that individuals acquire from their family, peers and through interactions with society as a whole. Whereas both formal and nonformal education may be "purposefully organized and directed to facilitate particular kinds of learning" (Simkins, 1977, p.48), informal learning occurs in incidental, unorganized and unsystematic ways (Paulston & Le Roy, 1980). It provides learners with insights into the workings of their societies. Informal *learning* occurs in both formal and nonformal systems and it is virtually impossible to separate it from those systems.

THE APPLICATION OF BERNSTEIN'S THEORIES TO NONFORMAL EDUCATION

If one examines the typical characteristics of an ideal form of nonformal education, it appears that it is distinguishable by both its weak classification and weak framing. Thus, according to Bernstein's theories, nonformal education is capable of social transformation.

Many of the characteristics of nonformal education identify it as weakly classified. Its activities, for example, tend to be fragmented, uncoordinated and diffuse. Frequently, the problems focus on community issues rather than being subject-specific. Content is often practical, incorporating the knowledge from several subject areas to deal with the problem addressed. These factors result in weak boundaries between knowledge contents (subjects or disciplines) and blurred divisions between curricular knowledge and community knowledge. Also blurred are the boundaries between the nonformal education system and other systems. Many programs are run in co-operation with religious or voluntary organizations, others are community sponsored and managed. Programs are often physically located in a variety of settings, in close conjunction with those organizations and their activities. When the programs are located in the work situation, the boundaries between work and education are weakened.

As well, its structures are less particularistic. The fact that decisions are made more frequently at the program rather than administrative level, fosters the development of administrative systems and supervisory roles that are more simplified and less hierarchical than in the formal system. Similarly, boundaries between the roles and responsibilities of learners and leaders are blurred. Wide variations among the participants in age, sex and previous schooling encourage alternate learning strategies and teacher/pupil relationships. Group members are often used as learning resources for other members of the group. This in turn encourages a greater degree of learner control than in the formal system.

Bernstein suggests that it is not weak classification alone, but the *combination* of weak classification and weak framing that has the greatest potential to create an egalitarian education and a new integrated society. Thus, it is important to note nonformal education's several characteristics which indicate weak framing. As mentioned above, when the boundaries between the roles and responsibilities of learners and leaders are blurred, the content, pacing and timing are often determined co-operatively. Content frequently is directed toward immediate reward or practical application. In many instances, nonformal education activities are consumer oriented and learners can control the goals, methodologies and content simply by accepting or rejecting them on the basis of their personal or group needs.

The weak framing of nonformal education is also indicated by temporal factors. Part-time study and flexible timing of activities characterize the area. Nonformal education usually offers more flexible entrance criteria and multiple entrance and exit points to the learner. Learners thus have greater personal control over their time and place of entry, exit and/or return according to their needs throughout their lives.

Methodologies in nonformal learning situations are varied and frequently determined co-operatively by the teacher and learner. The teacher-learner relationship is interactive rather than teacher dominated and hierarchical. The learners have greater control over the educational process. As a result, the learning is more relevant to their lives and the teacher-learner relationship is less one of supremacy/dependency. Since Bernstein hypothesizes that "principles of power and social control are realized through educational knowledge codes, and through the codes, enter into and shape consciousness" (Bernstein, 1977, p.94), the nonformal education process should promote social transformation rather than reproduction. In other words, a change in the subordination-domination relationships in the learning situation potentially creates changes in the learners' consciousness. The learners' ways of thinking and methods of perceiving and evaluating their status are altered. These new awarenesses may result in problem identification and actions that challenge the *status quo* (Ginsburg & Arias-Godinez, 1984).

The combination of weak classification and weak framing typical of nonformal education encourages the pedagogy to proceed from the "deep structure" to the "surface" (Bernstein, 1977, p.97). This means that during the early phases of learning, the deep structures which contain the ultimate mystery of the subject are made available to the learner. The early understanding of those mysteries means that each learner has access to and utilization of that special knowledge which enables new social relations to be created.

For those who believe in the need for social transformation, it would be all too easy and comforting to stop at this point and conclude that nonformal education has, according to Bernstein, a theoretical potential for social transformation. Such a conclusion would not be entirely consistent with Bernstein's work, however, for he has himself argued in several ways that weak classifications and weak framings may not necessarily result in social transformation (Collins, 1981). Wealth and power may not be redistributed equally among groups. The power relationships among the classes may be continued and the lower classes may not benefit from more opportunities to acquire wealth and power. Bernstein states that even if lower class learners participate in nonformal programs where they have greater control of the educational situation, the ruling middle class will maintain the ultimate control. Thus, whichever educational code dominates (collection for strong classification/strong framing or integrated for weak classification/weak framing) the middle class will possess it.

Bernstein believes that both the old and new components of the middle class embody their values and social expectations in society through a subtle, insidious "invisible pedagogy" in which control of the learner is implicit. Invisible pedagogy is synonymous with implicit control of the learner and exists when weak classification and weak framing occur. The more implicit the manner of transmission and the more diffuse the criteria of the pedagogical situation, the greater the ability of the ruling middle class to implicitly shape the learner. (Bernstein, 1977; King, 1979).

In conclusion, although Bernstein's work may be difficult and complex, there is little doubt that it represents an innovative and potentially useful way of viewing the relationships between social reproduction/transformation and nonformal education. To the extent that adult educators see it as part of their role to facilitate social transformation, then it is argued that the time and effort expended in studying this framework will be more than amply repaid.

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COMPARISON OF THE LOCUS OF CONTROL EXPECTANCIES OF TWO GROUPS OF OLDER ADULTS IN RELATION TO PARTICIPATION

An examination of locus of control as a description of participation of older adults in education programs. In this study this relationship was not substantiated.

Basic to an understanding of our world is the development of theoretical concepts as the framework for explaining the events of situations that occur in our society. The phenomena that influence the participation or lack of participation by adults in lifelong educational endeavors has been an area of conjecture and study by individuals interested in the development of adult learning theory.

K. Patricia Cross (1981) developed a model as a conceptual framework for understanding the participation of adults in learning activities. This model (COR) is based upon the premise that the act of participation in learning activities "...is not a single act but the result of a chain of responses, each based on an evaluation of the position of the individual in his or her environment" (p. 125). She notes that to understand adult participation we need to start at the beginning point of the COR model and attempt to understand the internal psychological variables that affect the individual's self-evaluation (p. 130).

One personality characteristic that seems appropriate for consideration is the concept of locus of control. Many studies have been conducted on the locus of control concept but no studies have been done that examine the relationship of this personality characteristic and participation in programs of higher education by older individuals.

Locus of control (LOC) is a concept derived from social learning theory. Rotter (1966) explains that social learning theory describes the nature of reinforcement as a factor in strengthening an expectancy that a behavior or situation will be followed by that reinforcement if it occurs again in the future. Rotter (1977) noted that "an event regarded by some persons as a reward or reinforcement may be differently perceived and reacted to by others" (p. 1). One of the factors that influences this response is the individual's perception of the degree to which his own behavior is the controlling force resulting in the reward or reinforcement (p. 1).

In defining the concept of locus of control Rotter (1966) states:

> When a reinforcement is perceived by the subject as following some action of his own but not being entirely contingent upon his action, then, in our culture, it is typically perceived as the result of luck, chance, fate, as under the control of powerful others, or as unpredictable because of the great complexity of the forces surrounding him. When the event is interpreted in this way by an individual, we have labeled this a belief in external control. If the person perceives that the event is contingent upon his own behavior or his own relatively permanent characteristics we term this a belief in internal control. (p. 1)

He further states, "A generalized attitude, belief, or expectancy regarding the nature of the causal relationship between one's own behavior and its consequences might affect a variety of behavioral choices in a broad band of life situations" (p. 2).

In describing the COR model, Cross (1981) states:

> While it is still far from the kind of theory that can be used to predict who will participate in which learning activity, it may be

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> useful in organizing existing knowledge and in suggesting more sharply focused research projects to add to the gradual accumulation of knowledge. (p. 124).

The purpose of this study was to examine the locus of control of individuals age 55 to 70 who are and who are not participating in organized educational programs in higher education in order to identify significant relationships that may exist between locus of control and participation or lack of participation in this type of educational activity.

Significance of the Study With the decreasing availability of potential students in the conventional college age groups and an increasing number of older adults with higher educational achievement levels, the institutions of higher education are becoming increasingly more interested in identification of those members of this age group for whom they can offer an educational service. COR model indicates that participation in adult learning is a chain of responses which begins with the individual's self-evaluation. Information about the self-evaluation of those older adults who participate in organized programs in higher education may assist educators in their understanding of the personality characteristics of older adult students. In addition, data about the self-evaluation of these participants related to their belief about the locus of control of expectations of reinforcement may add to the body of knowledge of adult learning theory related to participation in programs in higher education in similar situations, and to the efficacy of the locus of control scale as an indicator of behaviors associated with locus of control expectancies.

Statement of the Problem Is there a significant difference in the locus of control, as measured by the Rotter I-E scale, between groups of individuals age 55 to 70 who are and who are not participating in an organized educational program in higher education?

Hypotheses

H_1 There will be no significant difference in the locus of control between groups of individuals age 55 to 70 who are and who are not participating in organized programs in higher education.

H_2 There will be no significant differences in the locus of control related to gender between groups of individuals age 55 to 70 who are and who are not participating in organized programs in higher education.

H_3 There will be no significant difference in the locus of control between groups of individuals age 55-59, and age 60-69 who are and who are not participating in organized programs in higher education.

Definition of Terms

Locus of Control (LOC) - Score on the Rotter I-E scale after elimination of the 6 "filler" questions.

Internal LOC - A score of 11 or less on the Rotter I-E scale after elimination of the 6 "filler" questions.

External LOC - A score of 12 or more on the Rotter I-E scale after elimination of the 6 "filler" questions.

Participation in an organized educational program in higher education - Enrollment in a class or classes for which participants may be given academic credit upon completion of the course.

Older adults - Individuals age 55 and older.

Educational Level I - Individuals who have completed high school as a minimum level and a baccalaureate as a maximum level of educational attainment.

Educational Level II - Individuals who have attained either a masters or doctorate level of educational attainment.

Non-participant Group - Randomly selected employees and retired employees of a large public university in a midwestern state who are age 55 to 70, who have completed high school and/or high school equivalency as measured by the General Educational Development Test, and who are not participating in a course for which they could be given academic credit.

Participant Group - Students, age 55-70, enrolled in a large midwest university in classes for which they may be given academic credit upon completion of the course.

Methodology Participant group subjects were students, age 55 to 70, who were at the time of this study enrolled in a large midwest university in classes for which they might have been given academic credits upon completion of the courses. Non-participants, the comparison group, were randomly selected employees and retired employees of a large public university in a midwestern state who are age 55 to 70, who have completed high school or high school equivalency as measured by the General Educational Developmental Test, and who were not at the time of this study participating in a course for which they could have been given academic credit.

Subjects were informed in writing that all data would be reported as group data, and they were assured that they would not be identified as individuals. They were notified that return of the questionnaire and demographic sheet constitutes an informed consent for use of the data.

Instrumentation Rotter I-E Scale is a 29 question forced-choice questionnaire of which six items are "fillers" resulting in a potential cumulative score of zero to 23 when these "filler" questions are eliminated. This scale was designed to measure a broad ranged expectancy for reinforcement by use of an easily administered instrument with a low correlation with a social desirability scale. This scale measures the individual's belief about how reinforcement is controlled and is thus a measure of generalized expectancy.

Correlation with the Marlowe-Crowne Social Scale was -.07 to -.35. Internal consistency using the split half method resulted in a reliability of .65; using Spearman-Brown reliability was .79; and Kuder-Richardson reliabilities ranged from .69 to .73. Test-retest reliabilities varied between .49 and .83. Means for male college students ranged from 7.71 with standard deviation (SD) of 3.84 to 8.72 with SD of 3.59. Female college students ranged from 8.42 with Standard Deviation of 4.06 to 9.62 with Standard Deviation of 4.07. (Rotter, 1982, p. 189-193, 210; Rotter, 1966; Rotter, Chance, & Phares, 1972, 267-280; Rotter, 1975).

Data Collection This study follows an ex post facto design with 8 cells, allowing a comparison to be made between the reported locus of control beliefs of the two groups of subjects as measured by the Rotter I-E scale. Subjects participated in the study on a volunteer basis, therefore there may be differences in the reasons for participation in the study that were not controlled.

Analysis of Data Returned data was collected for a period of two weeks and responses on Rotter I-E Scale were scored to ascertain the degree of externality of each subject. Chi square values were obtained to ascertain the degree of similarities between the two groups related to age, sex and educational level. Chi square value was also obtained related to the relationship between the Participant and the Non-participant group and between internal and external locus of control scores.

One way Analysis of Variances were calculated to determine the F values between the two groups on the several combinations of variables of (a) group to group, (b) age group 55-59 to 60-69, (c) males to females, and (d) educational level I to educational level II. Two way Analysis of Variances were calculated to find the F value of the relationship between the Participant and the Non-participant groups related to age and gender. As a comparison between this study and another study involving older adults (Wolk and Kurtz, 1975) a t-test was done to find the t value of this relationship.

Results A t-test was done to compare the mean I-E scores of males with females. Non-participant males, as a group, are significantly more internal than non-participant females, as a group, at the .05 alpha level, t = 2.05 (t crit. = 2.00, p .05). Males, as a group, were significantly more internal than females, as a group, in the Participant group, t = 5.296 (t crit. = 2.021, p .05).

There are no significant differences in locus of control between age groups for the Non-participant group, t = 1.03 (t crit. = 2, p .05), and the Participant group, t = 1.387 (t crit. = 2.021, p .05). There are no significant differences in locus of control related to educational levels of the Non-participant group, t = .0521 (t crit. = 2.021, p .05).

The demographic data indicates that the two groups are comparable in relation to gender but not in relation to age or educational level. The Non-participant group had more subjects (51 percent) in the older age group than did the Participant group (26 percent). If individuals become more "internal" as they become older as indicated by the studies done by Penk (1969) and Staats (1974), then this difference in these groups would have been an important factor associated with the reason for no significant differences between the two groups related to locus of control and participation in higher education. To explore this factor a comparison was made between the two groups in the younger age group related to locus of control scores which also resulted in no significant differences, t = 1.53 (t crit. = 2, p .05).

Subjects are not comparable in their level of educational attainment. The Non-participant Group had fewer subjects in Educational Level II (66 percent) than did the Participant group (87 percent); however, both groups had more than 65 percent of the subjects who reported Educational Level II. This can be compared to national averages for 1979 of 11 percent who have completed college and 60 percent who had completed high school in age 55 to 64, and 9 percent college graduates and 44 percent high school graduates in the 64-74 age group. (U. S. Population Reports, June 1981b)

The Non-participant and Participant groups both have a much higher level of educational attainment than the national average. A comparison between the Non-participant group and the Participant group related to Educational Level I attainment and locus of control scores resulted in no significant differences between these groups, t = .178 (t crit. =2.056, p .05).

Hypotheses Tested

Hypothesis$_1$: There will be no significant difference in the locus of control between groups of individuals age 55 to 70 who are and who are not participating in organized programs in higher education.

A one way Analysis of Variance comparing the two groups resulted in F = .29, P F = .5942.

A Chi Square comparison of the two groups related to classifications, Internal and External on the Rotter I-E scale indicated a non-significant difference between the two groups. Results indicate that the hypothesis is not rejected at the .05 level of significance.

Hypothesis$_2$: There will be no significant differences in the locus of control related to gender between groups of individuals age 55 to 70 who are and are not participating in organized programs in higher education.

A one way Analysis of Variance by sex for the total group indicates F = 6.55, p F = .0118 and a two way Analysis of Variance by sex and participation results in F = .18, p F = .6717. There are significant differences between the group of males and the group of females in the total group of subjects related to scores on the Rotter I-E Scale but there are no significant differences between the two groups thus the hypothesis is not rejected.

Hypothesis$_3$: There will be no significant difference in the locus of control between groups of individuals age 55-59 and age 60-69 who are and who are not participating in organized programs in higher education.

A one way Analysis of Variance by age for the total group of subjects indicates F = .00, p F = .9921. A two way Analysis of Variance by age and participation indicates F = 2.87, p F = .3698.

Results indicate that the hypothesis is not rejected at the .05 level of significance. It should be noted that this hypothesis could be rejected at the .1 alpha level. A further comparison of the total group of educational levels by a one way Analysis of Variance resulted in F = 1.45, p F = .21317. Locus of control mean scores and standard deviations are reported in Table 6. These results indicate there is no significant difference related to educational levels.

Since there are significant demographic differences between these two groups a further comparison was made with a study reported by Wolk and Kurtz (1975). Subjects were non-institutionalized older males and females ages 60 to 85 with a Median age of 68. Participation or lack of participation in programs in higher education was not identified. The Rotter I-E scale Mean score reported in this study was 8.22 with a Standard Deviation of 4.32. A comparison of this group with the Non-participant group using a t-test indicated t =1.99 (t crit. = 1.96, p .05) or a significant difference between the two groups at .05 alpha level. Comparison with the Participant group resulted in t = 1.43 (t crit. = 1.96, p .05) which was not significant at the .05 alpha level. Using this group instead of the Non-participant group as a comparison group with the Participant group the first hypothosis is not rejected at alpha level of .05.

Power of the Study Power of the study with 65 subjects in the Non-participant group and 53 subjects in the Participant group with an average Standard Deviation of 3.795 indicates there is approximately a 95 percent chance of identification of a difference of a score of one point on the group Mean on the Rotter I-E scale.

Conclusions In this study locus of control was found not to be a personality characteristic that was significantly different between the two groups, or between the study reported by Wolk and Kurtz (1975) and the participant group. It is therefore not a descriptor that could be useful in identification of the personality characteristics of participants and non-participants in programs in higher education in comparable situations. In a similar study, Falconner (1974) found that locus of control was not a predictor of participation in adult education as measured by the Leisure Activity Survey developed by Litchfield and the Rotter I-E Scale for measurement of locus of control.

Implications It is important to note that 87 percent of both groups scored below 12 on the Rotter I-E scale and 71 percent scored 9 or below. In the Participant Group 92 percent scored below 12 and 68 percent scored 9 or below. Although locus of control may not be a descriptor of differences in personality characteristics between those who do and do not participate in programs of higher education, it may have implications for program development. Rotter (1966), Lefcourt (1966a, 1966b, 1982, p. 50 and p. 97), Joe (1971), and Kuypers (1972) have described those individuals with an internal locus of control as being more alert to the factors in their environment that may be useful in future behavior; as placing value on skill and achievement reinforcement, as being particularly concerned with failures; as having a tendency to forget failures; as being resistive to subtle attempts to control their behavior; as being goal directed; as exhibiting greater efforts to control the directions of their own lives; as having a greater tendency to seek information; as spending time in intellectual activities; as exhibiting more intense interest in academic pursuits; as having a tendency to be more cautious and conservative in risk-taking; as being resistive to being placed in the position of being "put down" by the assumed expertise of others; and as having the ability to defer gratification of goals.

If these factors are valid indicators of the characteristics of those individuals who are identified as "Internals" then educational programs offered to them may be more successful if program planning includes consideration of these expected behaviors. Incorporation of the participants in goal setting and presentations of subject matter would seem appropriate. Recognizing the need for reinforcement of achievement and skills might be emphasized. Open and direct communication would seem to be necessary, and a clear understanding of expectations and requirements would be important to those students. These same factors have frequently been referred to by adult educators as important considerations in program planning for adults.

Joe (1966) noted that there appears to be differences among males and females regarding their generalized expectancies of reinforcement but "such differences may be related to the cultural roles assigned to each sex, to social class, and to regional effects. (p. 634)." In the current study there is a significant difference in the locus of control of this group of males and females in the total number of subjects with males being more internal than females but it is noted that both groups are very internal in the expectancies of reinforcement therefore the difference does not seem to be important.

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Equiping Adults for Learning: A Historical Analysis of Participation Training as an Educational Innovation

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Abstract

Participation Training is an educational innovation developed at Indiana University in the 1950s and 1960s to equip adults to learn how to learn.

The search for educational procedures unique for adult learners that differ from traditional schooling is not new. The most popular and current expression of this concern is Malcolm Knowles' andragogy. In the 1950s and 1960s, Paul Bergevin, John McKinley, Robert Smith and others at Indiana University (IU) conducted a series of field experiments to identify principles of programming for adult learners. The most significant result of this effort was Bergevin and McKinley's development of Participation Training (PT).

In 1974 at a national research conference, John Henschke recognized the importance of their contribution by citing them as among nine living persons who had made major contributions to adult education (McKenzie, 1975, p. 2). Drawing upon interviews and unpublished and published materials, this paper traces the origin and development of Participation Training and assesses its significance as an adult education innovation.

The Context of Innovation

Paul Bergevin came to Indiana University in 1947 as Director of the Bureau of Community Organization for Adult Education, a unit in the newly organized extension division. Bergevin's Bureau was to work with communities in Indiana to provide educational services, including developing community councils for adult education. But from the beginning Bergevin had in his mind to do research and graduate education. Within the first eight months he developed two graduate courses in adult education which the School of Education had agreed to offer, and he established research as one of the goals of the Bureau.

Prior to his work at IU Bergevin had been Director of Adult and Vocational Education at Anderson, Indiana. At Anderson, Bergevin organized training programs to teach adults how to work together and at the same time to learn subject matter. In 1936 he initiated a training institute in group discussion conducted in industrial settings in the Anderson area. The institutes provided training in using discussion to examine problems and formulate solutions. By 1947 Bergevin had conducted more than 400 of these institutes (McKenzie, 1975, p. 3). In 1937 Bergevin also organized

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Industrial Management Clubs and Foreman's Clubs, and Bergevin showed members how to set up a program committee and conduct programs.

At IU Bergevin immediately developed a "Training Institute for Group Discussion Leaders." Dwight Morris, Bergevin's staff member and successor at Anderson, joined the IU staff in 1949, and he and Bergevin developed and tested with other staff members two manuals which were published in 1954, A Manual for Discussion Leaders and Participants and Group Processes for Adult Education. These procedures for training volunteer leaders had been tested for six years in ninety Indiana communities and institutions. By this time, Bergevin and his staff had recognized that effective group discussion and decision making required that participants, as well as leaders, be trained.

During the period the training institutes were organizaed and expanded, Bergevin searched for an alternative to the community organization approach with which he had become disillusioned. By 1952 he focused the efforts of the Bureau around the idea of the institutional approach to adult education. Institutions suited his research purposes better. The same dynamics of communication and intergroup problems were present in institutions as they were in the community, but institutions provided a more focused setting for research. Institutions also were a natural setting for adult education, and adults would be motivated to learn to solve problems associated with their institutional lives.

What Bergevin wanted to accomplish through adult education was informed by a particular conception of adult education and its purpose in American society. In his annual reports and pamphlets, he repeatedly emphasized that adult education should assist adults to see their relationship to their fellows, the institutions to which they belonged, the larger community, and to work collaboratively with others. In A Philosophy for Adult Education, he classifies this form of adult education as a third type of systematically organized learning programs, which also included the school type and independent study.

The Anatomy of Innovation

The field experiments in the institutional approach to adult education were based on a method that Bergevin called "developmental research," similar to what Kurt Lewin called "action research." The church was selected as the first institution for "developmental research" because the Episcopalians and other denominations in Indiana agreed for their churches to become laboratories and the Lilly Foundation agreed to underwrite the project. In 1952, Bergevin and John McKinley, a new staff member recruited from the English Department, began their study of "the condition of adult education in the church" (Bergevin & McKinley, 1958, p. v). In 1954 Robert Smith, also recruited from the English Department, initiated an experimental program in a second institutional setting, the library. The institutional approach was tested almost simultaneously in these two settings. Smith (1959) reported his work in several articles. Bergevin and McKinley reported theirs in a book, Design for Adult Education in the Church.

Bergevin and McKinley began the church study without a specific plan. They began first by training leaders in discussion skills, but after a year they saw the need for training participants. They reviewed the results of the training efforts spontaneously rather than by periodic schedule. After the first or second year the problems and needs came into focus. Beginning in late 1956 and through all of 1957 they wrote the Design book. During the writing some things began to come together. For example, the concept of "learning team" that occupies a prominent place in the book was not used in the field.

What resulted from this developmental research project was an adult educational innovation: a five day training institute to train lay persons in teamwork discussion skills and program planning skills. It was called "The Indiana Plan" for Adult Religious Education and that title continued to be used for institutes conducted in the churches and for clergy and laity. By 1960, if not before, the institute for other groups and settings was called "Participation Training." The institutes differed in name only.

The Indiana Plan challenged the traditional conceptions of adult religious education: subject centered, use of the lecture as the primary educational method, and planned by the central denominational headerquarters. These traditional conceptions were the problems that Bergevin and McKinley diagnosed in their study; the Indiana Plan was the solution. Adult education in the church needed to be reconstituted along several lines, namely, a better understanding of the principles of adult learning, training for both leaders and participants, beginning programs with needs recognized by the learners, using goals to give direction to the learning and evaluation to asses outcomes, balancing between process and content, and using a variety of methods.

The Institute consisted of two phases. Phase one entailed training in teamwork discussion skills and phase two in program planning skills. Participants were trained to be part of a learning team in which they selected the content to be discussed, performed the service roles, and critiqued their work together as a group. The learning team was required to follow certain "educational conditions:" freedom of expression, active individual participation, sharing in program development, voluntary learning activities, formal and informal methods, and outward growth. As an outcome of the training, participants should be able to assess their growth in seven areas: creative self-expression, acceptance of personal responsibility, cooperation in a common task, better communication, self-examination, self-guidance, and sensitivity to individual needs.

In the planning phase of the Institute, the learning teams developed skills in identifying the needs of others and using program planning procedures to meet those needs through educational programs by planning and conducting a program for another group of learners. These trained participants then would go back to the congregation and the community equiped to develop and deliver programs and to assist others to develop competencies in adult learning principles. Once several groups had been trained and were using these skills in the church, then the consolidation phase occured and the principles of adult learning were incorporated into the operational and value system of the church. This scheme was an intregal part of the institutional approach and applied to other instiutions.

As a group-based training program, the Indiana Plan (Participation Training) had its origin in Bergevin's interest in training adults to work collaboratively in planning and conducting their own learning. But in the same period that Bergevin and McKinley developed the Indiana Plan, group dynamics as a movement and sensitivity training as a training design,came into national prominence. The Indiana Plan was shaped, in part, by the reaction of Bergevin and McKinley to that new approach to adult learning, but it was an independent innovation, not a derivative of sensitivity training.

A friend of Bergevin, David Hunter, head of the the national education program of the Episcopal Church, invited Bergevin to serve on the staff of a laboratory in Salt Lake City. Bergevin did not like what he saw and left early. In his view, the laboratory method was too much like therapy, and the trainers tried to penetrate the psyche of the participants, a task they were not trained to do. Nor did he like the specialized vocabulary used in the laboratories. McKinley, however, described his participation in a NTL laboratory at Hanover College in 1953 as a "tremendous experience," and he took from the lab ideas about feedback which he built into the church program. In 1955 he served for one week on the staff of a lab at the University of the South.

Bergevin's disdain for laboratory education does not mean that he rejected group dynamics as a method of learning or field of study. The contrary is true. But the agenda of the laboratory educators was not his agenda. Bergevin found in Nathaniel Cantor's (1947) The Dynamics of Learning an explanation of adult learning behavior that made more sense to him. A sociologist at the University of Buffalo, Cantor developed a unique way of teaching. He required students to read course materials, write brief papers of their understanding of the ideas, and share the ideas with the class. He served as the facilitator, keeping the students on task, and exploring their motivation for, and resistence, to learning. Cantor's approach and his explanation of the learning process that leads to personal change provided the theoretical perspective that Bergevin found congenial with his own thinking. The "Principles" section of the Design book is basically a recasting of Cantor's ideas.

The Dissemination of Innovation

In the church study and other institutional experiments, Bergevin and his colleagues at Indiana sought to develop and test principles of adult learning and to disseminate those principles. The principal means of dissemination was the institute. Two day institutes on group discussion had been organized in 1948. The five day institute emerged in 1954 as a general institute and then was used as a five day institute for the church. The prototype had a content session and then a discussion session. In August, 1956, McKinley and Smith developed for the Disciples of Christ the institute that resembles the present institute; in this institute they trained participants in program planning skills in two groups instead of one large group. The institute for churches was called the Indiana Plan, but by 1960 or before, the institute for other groups was called the Participation Training Institute (Bergevin & McKinley, 1965).

Of the institutions in which PT has been used, the church was the most receptive host. The Episcopal churches of Indiana were most widely used as experimental sites, and that denomination made more use of PT than other church groups, followed by the Disciples of Christ. In 1956 Bergevin introduced the Indiana Plan to the Disciples of Christ at their national Christian Education Assembly. Nearly all of the denominational leaders involved with adult education were trained in Indiana Plan institutes. From 1956 through 1964, the Disciples held annual instiutes, staffed by IU faculty, on the Indiana campus. Participants returned to their local communities for a four day laboratory to apply the principles to local congregations. In 1962 the IP methods were incorporated into a new curriculum series and explicitly taught in the introductory course that preceded the content series. In the early 1970s, the Catholic Church promoted the Indiana Plan as an effective approach to adult religious education.

By 1975 309 Institutes had been conducted in the United States, others had been conducted in Canada, Denmark, Australia, and Japan. The institutions or client systems for which the institutes have been conducted include general hospitals, mental hospitals, school districts, universities, nurses, cooperative extension agents, prisons, and adult basic education personnel. Individuals from other institutions have attended the institutes conducted annually on the IU campus. Other institutes were conducted by trainers other than IU faculty members at other sites in other states.

Certain aspects of Participation Training have been incorporated into other training programs such as management training, quality circles, and health care training programs. It has been used as a program for training in group decision-making, problem-solving, and communication.

One reason for the wide dissemination was the highly structured PT design and the relative ease with which persons could learn how to be a trainer. Persons recognized as PT trainers by IU participated in one or two institutes and then served as a co-trainer for one or two institutes. A widely dispersed but unorganized network of trainers emerged.

With the exception of the royalities from their books, Bergevin and McKinley did not profit financially from Participation Training, and they did not permit others to profit. After Bergevin´s retirement in 1972, an Indianapolis consultant attempted to organize a network of PT trainers and market PT commerically, but the effort did not succeed.

The Innovation Assessed

As an educational innovation, PT as incorporated in the original institute format appears to have run its course. IU is the sole remaining sponsoring institution and that sponsorship is in jeopardy. But the theory of adult learning and programming has become part of the main stream of adult education practice through the 1963 Adult Education Procedures book which has been used widely for over 20 years. Robert Smith´s (1982) work on learning how to learn builds primarily on PT.

While the development and dissemination of PT occured simultaneously with the group dynamics movement and laboratory education, PT was an independent innovation that sprang from the value system of Paul Begervin. Bergevin was not a technician interested merely in method. For him method derived from philosophy and that philosophy was democracy as a way of life. At its heart, PT equiped adults to come to some understanding of themselves and their relationships to others, to their institutions, and their communities. The demise of PT can be attributed to many causes. Other and perhaps superior technologies have replaced it. But surely another cause is the demise of the value system that PT represented. An educational innovation that supports what Bergevin called "the civilizing process," that addresses social and political functions, that calls institutions to promote a mature rationality in its members, cannot long endure in a society where adult education has become a function of economics or the remedy for obsolescence.

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ADULT ESL PROGRAM HOLDING POWER: Towards a Conceptual Model

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ABSTRACT

Exploratory research using qualitative and quantitative methods examined the holding power of government funded adult ESL programs by examining student, program, and community factors.

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

The immigrant education programs, one of the oldest forms of adult education in the United States, makes an excellent subject of participation research for several reasons. Of late, much adult participation research has foundered on a learner psychology-motivation paradigm, one that is far too narrow to explain the dynamic interrelationship which exists between adults' willingness to attend courses, the nature of learning activities for adults, and the contexts of adult learners lives. Programs of English for the Foreign Born (EFB) and English as a Second Language (ESL), as they are called today, were chosen for this research because learning the host language of a country is generally a high priority of adult immigrants, and thus individual differences in motivation to learn the host language should not be the most critical factor influencing their participation.

A study including program variables as well as learner characteristics also has more practical applications than those limited to individual psychological factors since it is programs, not students, over which adult education administrators have the greatest amount of control. If program improvement is one of the goals of research, then a paradigmatic shift to study characteristics of programs is needed and long overdue. Studying ESL programs is particularly valuable because nationally, at least, this type of program has been in very serious trouble. Despite the foreigners' need to speak English in the U.S. and the absence of tuition cost barriers, a nation-wide study showed separation rates from government funded community ESL programs between 1977-79 to be extremely high, the highest in fact of all Adult Basic Education programs, although ESL enrollments during the same period increased a remarkable 86 percent (Kay, 1981).

In the state of New Jersey, there is enormous variability in program attendance. In some community programs, enrollment and attendance are extremely high, while in others, participation is far less enthusiastic. Conducting a comparative study of participation in government-funded ESL programs in New Jersey is an efficacious way to examine the dynamic and complex relation between adult participants from a broad range of socio-economic backgrounds and a variety of program factors. In addition, it was hoped that this foray into a neglected area of adult education might lead to a theoretical model of program holding power which is sorely needed to stimulate new research into the impact of program variables on enrollment and attendance.

METHODOLOGY

A paucity of adult ESL attrition research, the absence of an appropriate theoretical framework and the great difficulty of obtaining data directly from limited English speakers made a hypothesis testing, quantitative approach inappropriate for this research. Therefore, a naturalistic inquiry approach, one using the constant comparative method (Bodgan and Biklen, 1982) was chosen.

The study began with secondary data analysis of statistics collected by the New Jersey Department of Education, Division of Adult Education data bases. Program characteristics of 83 districts sponsoring ESL or EFB programs in 1979-80 were compared. These factors included the percentage of directors' time that was dedicated to adult programming; the number of full and part time teachers and aides to be hired for the academic year, teacher and aide salaries, total personnel cost, projected enrollment, number of locations that classes were offered inthe district, the days of the week and hours of the day that classes were scheduled, and the maximum class hours available during the academic year.

A limited number of demographic characteristics were available from the DAE reports about the nearly 18,000 students who attended in 1979-80. These included age, sex, racial/ethnic group, and employment status. Multiple regression analysis was employed to identify the program and student characteristics which were significantly related to enrollment and holding power.

Enrollment in this study refers to the number of limited English speaking adults that a state funded community ESL program has attracted and retained in its classes for at least twelve hours during an academic year. Holding power refers to the mean number of hours that enrolled students attended classes in a particular district during the academic year. This statistic, called the Average Student Attendance (ASA) by the Division of Adult Education in New Jersey, was the measure of district holding power used.

Preliminary findings from the secondary data analysis led to an examination of total community population demographic statistics which were taken from 1980 U.S. Census Reports. These included ethnic, education, and economic characteristics of the population living in the communities which sponsored ESL and EFB programs. Multiple regression analysis of this community data, in conjunction with the student and program data, led to the development of a conceptual model of attendance. After face-to face interviews with adult education directors and numerous conversations with many adult ESL teachers who provided further insight into ESL program enrollment and attendance, the model was revised and refined to its present form.

DESCRIPTION OF THE DATA

Three clusters of variables were examined during the early stages of the study. Student characteristics collected by the Department of Education in New Jersey in 1979-80 were age, sex, and ethnic group. Slightly more women (9121) enrolled than men (8592); on the average, women also attended more hours (ASA = 73.0) than men (ASA =68.0). Attendance seemed to increase with age; the 2078 attenders who were younger than 18, averaged 60.8 hours of attendance. Adult students between 18 and 34, of whom there were 10,686, attended an average of 70.0 hours. In the next age group, 35 to 44, there were 3292 adults who averaged 73.8 hours. The highest average attendance, 76.1 hours, was attained by adults 45 years and older.

Ethnic group showed greater variance in attendance and enrollment than age and sex. There were far more Hispanics (10,985) than any other racial/ethnic group with Whites (3,365) and Asians (2,095) being far more numerous than Blacks (786) or others (829). It was also found that the average attendance of people of Asian origin (77.1 hrs) and Spanish origin (74.1 hrs) was higher than Blacks (62.9 hrs), Whites (57.2 hrs), and Others (54.3 hrs). While the findings on sex and age were consonant with findings in a earlier study of participation and persistance in adult education (Anderson and Darkenwald, 1979), the findings on racial/ethnic group attendance and enrollment were rather surprising, especially given that Hispanics tend to be the least educated racial/ethnic group in the state.

Analysis of program factors clarified the results somewhat. They showed that three types of ESL programs were provided in New Jersey, and that schedule type varied depending upon geographic region and type of community. Type 1 programs, located in urban centers, offered extensive provision, that is, many schedule and teacher options including daily daytime classes as well as three or four evening classes per week. Type 1 programs had much larger enrollments and higher holding power than Type 2 programs, those providing only two daytime and two evening classes, and Type 3 programs, those which scheduled only one, two, or three evenings of class per week. Type 2 programs were located only in the northeast, near the urban centers. Type 3 programs, on the other hand, were found in every county in the state, especially in rural and suburban areas.

To examine the relationship of schedule type with program factors, community education and economic need, and attendance and enrollment, all Type 1, 2, and 3 programs were sorted by schedule type and means were calculated. The means in the table below show these interrelationships.

	Type 1 n = 20	Type 2 n = 12	Type 3 n = 51
PROGRAM FACTORS			
Number of teacher options	13.6	5.7	2.6
Number of schedule options	13.1	6.3	2.2
Annual class hours	845.8	225.8	156.7
COMMUNITY FACTORS (in %)			
Limited English speakers	29.2	13.7	13.5
Families below poverty level	18.9	5.7	8.6
Lack of high school diploma	46.6	26.2	32.6
Unemployment rate	9.3	5.1	7.1
ATTENDANCE FACTORS			
Program Enrollment	634.9	150.7	59.9
Average Student Attendance	79.9	47.0	41.3

Schedule type reflects the program factors, teacher and schedule options which were provided. Multiple regression analysis found that number of teacher and schedule options together predicted 41 percent of the variance in both attendance and enrollment. Although annual class hours available did not predict either attendance or enrollment, it is included to show the vast differences in annual class schedule available between the urban Type 1 programs and the suburban and rural Type 2 and Type 3 programs.

The advantage of the more extensive schedule is greater flexibility and accommodation to the needs of the adult students. Multiple schedule options allowed far more time flexibility for working students and multiple teacher options allowed more homogenous skill grouping in classes, and thus more effective teaching.

Educational and economic needs of the population were also found to have a close association with schedule type. This relationship is most obvious if districts having the greatest educational and economic needs, Type 1, are compared with Type 2 and 3 districts, those with lesser needs. In Type 1 districts, nearly one fifth of the population are below the poverty level and nearly a third do not speak English well, far greater than the proportions in Type 2 and Type 3 districts.

An unexpected relation between community need factors and educational provision is found when Type 2 and Type 3 districts are compared. While Type 2 and 3 communities have nearly the same percentage of limited English speakers among their foreign born population, in Type 3 communities, there is a substantially higher percentage of families below the poverty level, a higher unemployment rate, and a larger proportion of adults without the high school diploma. Yet Type 2 districts offered twice as many ESL teacher and schedule options, including daytime classes. Although the added provision of Type 2 programs appears to have resulted in substantially larger enrollments, there is only a slight difference in average student attendance. Thus, extra accommodation to adult ESL clients in Type 2 programs did not increase holding power substantially.

Other examples of scheduling accommodation in some large city programs were found to be associated with holding power; the evening class pattern seemed to be a critical factor. Those districts scheduling classes Monday, Tuesday, and Wednesday averaged significantly higher attendance than those which offered classes Tuesday, Wednesday, and Thursday. Districts with the Monday, Tuesday, Wednesday evening class schedule offered one or more of the following: a greater number of full or part time teachers, learning sites, or a greater number of class hours per year, all of which made those districts far more accommodating to limited English speaking adult students, than those which scheduled evening classes on Tuesday, Wednesday, and Thursday. Some teachers and directors who were interviewed believe that Thursday is a poor night for attendance for two reasons: (1) end of the week fatigue of both working students and teachers; and (2) students being paid on Thursdays and a high violent crime rate on Thursday exacerbated the fear of walking the urban streets to class on Thursday night. Thursday seemed to make a difference only in cities with a high violent crime rate.

Surprising findings were revealed when enrollment and attendance by county were analyzed in combination with community need factors. The enrollment of Hispanics was ten times higher than that of Asians who enrolled in disproportionately lower numbers in four northeastern counties located near New York and two other counties in other parts of the state where community need for adult basic education were the highest, that is, where there was a high number and density of limited English speakers, a high percentage of families below the poverty level, a high percentage of people who have not completed high school, and high unemployment. In the rest of the state, however, Asians, who in New Jersey tend to be a more highly educated ethnic group than Hispanics, enrolled in disproportionately high numbers. Asians also averaged higher attendance than Hispanics in most programs in New Jersey. Yet, again, notable exceptions were in two counties with high limited English speaker density; Hispanics there were the highest attenders. The availability of tuition ESL programs in high density counties was believed to be a contributing factor to the lower enrollment and attendance of Asians in the government funded ESL programs.

Finally funding patterns, the underlying community financial support needed to provide the matching funds required for extensive scheduling, showed striking similarities to a geographic pattern of variance in racial/ethnic group dropout from public schools. The obvious east/west pattern also bore similarities with the pattern of adult student ethnic group enrollment and attendance. These results point to an unsettling hypothesis that ethnic/racial group discord may be taking its toll in both child and adult education systems in New Jersey. This ethnic/racial factor was much more noticeable in the northeastern counties where the majority of ethnic groups have settled, and where, unfortunately, economic disparity between races and ethnic groups continues to be the greatest. It was hypothesized that ethnic cohesion may have resulted in "taking care of ones own" in the financing of adult education programs.

The conceptual model of student attendance which evolved during this study of ESL programs in New Jersey is based upon three interrelated core categories: population density, community need and accommodation. The model is based upon the notion that attendance in adult ESL programs is influenced by set of factors which are not linear as they appear below, but instead are dynamic and interacting.

MODEL OF ADULT ESL PROGRAM HOLDING POWER

POPULATION DENSITY ---	COMMUNITY NEED ---	ACCOMMODATION		
		COMMUNITY ---	PROGRAM ---	STUDENT
Historical immigrant settlement and other American migration to cities	Limited English speakers Poverty Lack of basic education Unemployment	Funding for ESL programs Funding for ABE programs	Sufficient and appropriate scheduling and instruction	Average Student Attendance Enrollment

CONCLUSIONS

Research which set out to study the effects of program and student factors on adult ESL student participation found both attendance and enrollment to be strongly influenced by scheduling factors which ultimately depend upon communities' willingness and capacity to fund sufficient and appropriate ESL programs.

One might expect that Asians and Whites, more highly educated ethnic/racial groups than Hispanics and Blacks in New Jersey, to participate more actively in adult ESL classes. However, the evidence is clear that when adequate schedules and teachers were provided, Hispanics and Blacks responded by enrolling in large numbers and attending long hours. It is unfortunate that adult education programs were and still are underfunded in the urban areas which need them the most. An underlying negative attitude between racial/ethnic groups may also influence Black and Hispanics adults' willingness to participate in some adult ESL education programs in New Jersey. The "culture of poverty" described by Lewis (1968), a class of people who do not effectively participate in the major institutions of the large society, may well exist in some of New Jersey's cities. Another author believes the insensitivity of the education system itself is a critical factor in the marginality of the Puerto Ricans in New Jersey's largest city, Newark (Hidalgo, 1970). Still others finding the U.S. public school system to be severely lacking, describe it as "an effective instrument for the maintenance and perpetuation of class structure" (Gintes and Bowles, 1976).

There is no question that further research is needed to examine the equity of publically funded adult education programs in New Jersey. Critical self-evaluation of other education systems in the country would also appear to be well advised to insure that the principles of equal educational opportunity and equity are upheld for all peoples. Perhaps such an effort would result in more equal educational participation of adults from all socioeconomic classes.

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THE AMERICANIZATION MOVEMENT IN THE 1920's: A NEGLECTED ASPECT OF ADULT EDUCATION HISTORY

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The origins of adult education in America are evident in a variety of well documented initiatives such as the Junto, Lyceum, and Chautauqua. However, an area in the field which has received virtually no historical notice, save for the work of Carlson or Seller, is the "Americanization" program at the turn of the 20th century. During that time, America experienced a fear regarding the influx of foreigners to its shores and attacked that fear on a national basis with an adult education program called "Americanization." The purpose of this paper is to explore aspects of the Americanization movement by examining primary source documents (manuscripts and Teachers College Bulletins) and other relevant secondary sources. It analyzes immigrant education or the Americanization movement from three different perspectives: the socio-political climate of the time, the national patterns of provision and instructional procedures, and how one academic institution, namely Teachers College, Columbia University (1924-1933), prepared its teachers of immigrant adults. The paper concludes with a discussion of some ethical issues involved in such a social action initiative.

SOCIO-POLITICAL CLIMATE

A theoretical framework proposed by Smelser to explain collective behavior and social movements provides a guide to the discussion of the socio-political events of the first quarter of the 20th century which led to Americanization. This framework suggests five stages of societal reaction response: structural conduciveness, structural strain, growth and spread of a generalized belief, a precipitating factor, and mobilization of participants for action.[1]

Structural Conduciveness. One of the factors which was conducive to the later frenzy of educational activity around the immigrant in the 1920's was the early laws regarding immigration. Generally, there was no federal legislation keeping people out save for an occasional state law barring those likely to become a burden. In fact, immigrants were welcomed to increase the population thus to give more importance to a region.[2] Coupled with the relative ease with which the States welcomed immigration was another structurally conducive component, that of the need for workers in the expanding industries. By 1877, the United States ceased to be a country of farms and villages and became a nation of cities and factories. Those areas needed workers for an increasingly mechanized and technologically sophisticated country.[3]

Structural Strain. To continue with the theoretical framework the country, as stated, allowed a large number of foreign born to enter. Meanwhile, a second component, that of structural strain, was soon apparent. In this instance, it can best be illustrated by demographics. In 1850, native-born Americans outnumbered immigrants and their children eight to one (8:1). Between 1901 and 1910, enough immigrants had arrived in America to account for almost 10 percent of the total population, so that by 1920, there were now only two native Americans for every first or second generation immigrant (2:1).[4]

Growth and Spread of a Generalized Belief. Closely related to the subject of numbers was the kind of people who came to the shores and what characteristics were implied by some. The folks who comprised the new wave of immigration were not the same as the "old immigration" pattern of the Revolutionary War era (i.e. northern and western Europeans). The new immigration wave flowed from the peasantries of southern and eastern Europe, and of those who fled persecutions and industrial dislocation, many of their number tended to be unskilled laborers.[5]

Precipitating Factor. Not only was it the rapid increase in vast numbers of foreign workers to the country, but World War I acted as a precipitating factor.[6] Initial efforts to deal with the immigrants were on a small scale and slow pace. They were sympathetically based in that they addressed the practical prolems confronting the immigrants. However, with the onset of World War I, Grattan stated that, "fear of the 'unassimilated' immigrant then grew apace; the patriotic felt a need to achieve national unity. Out of this mixture of fear and patriotism there was generated enough steam to transform a quiet movement, aimed at doing something helpful for the immigrant laboring slowly through the tedious process of assimulation, into a tremendous crusade--with banners and speeches and brass bands--to Americanize the same immigrant immediately."[7]

Mobilization of Participants for Action. Finally, taking into account America's general willingness to accept immigrants (structural conduciveness), the sheer number who came in the 1890's-1920's (structural strain), the fear and suspicion aroused by the cultural make up of the group (growth and spread of a generalized belief), and the onset of World War I patriotism (precipitating factor), the framework was completed with a desire to "do something" about the phenomenon, thus the "Americanization" program (mobilization of participants for action). In other words, all of these determinants, and no doubt many more, built upon one another to culminate into a social action initiative on the part of America in response to the perceived situation.

NATIONAL PATTERNS OF PROVISION AND INSTRUCTION

No matter what it was called, Americanization, assimilation, or acculturation, it was seen as a national crusade to do something constructive to help the immigrant become "an American." As earlier discussed, the efforts toward this end were less zealous and far more humane before the entire nation became involved. Gordon stated that this conformity to some vague notion of white Anglo-Saxon (the Americanization program) "gripped the nation like a fever," and that essentially its primary emphasis consisted of stripping the immigrants of their native culture and attachments and making them over into an American.[8] Seller wrote of the "Americanizers" that "Their motives varied from an altruistic desire to help the foreign born adjust and succeed in their new country to an ethnocentric desire to control an unruly lower class and by 'improving' them, to safeguard the American way of life."[9]

The Americanization program was put into effect by a number of sources and in a variety of ways. On the federal level, twice it went as high as the President of the United States. In 1915, Woodrow Wilson informed a group of naturalized citizens that ethnic group identity was not compatible with being a "thorough American."[10]

The second occasion was the 1923 State of the Union Message of President Calvin Coolidge in which he remarked, "America must be kept American."[11] Such federal agencies as the Department of Immigration and Naturalization and the Committee on Public Information printed and distributed thousands of informational pamphlets and posters.

A plethora of individual groups implemented their particular brand of Americanization. Industries, especially those in heavily immigrant populated areas, set up factory schools to teach English. Some industries would not permit promotion or even hire individuals who were not attending night or factory schools.[12]

No matter what else was taught by the night and factory schools, churches, and other organizations, English lessons were taught in all. In addition, with men, citizenship training and instruction in work habits and safety were given. Hygiene, childcare, and American-style cooking and homemaking were taught to the women.[13]

Despite the widespread national nature of the movement, not everyone was in total agreement with its tactics. Jane Addams and John Dewey were among the critics who spoke out against the policy of Americanization and the destruction of indigenous cultural values of immigrants.[14] Jane Addams, who founded Hull-House in Chicago, was deeply aware of the pain and sorrow created by such blazon attempts to wipe out the immigrants' background. So sensitive was she that she created a "Labor Museum" in which the women could display their native methods of spinning and weaving.[15] The educational philosopher John Dewey was somewhat of a spokesperson for the movement, but in another vein. That is, he suggested that each sector of people ought to respect the other, and that great pains should be taken to enlighten all to the contributions of every strain that makes up America. Once this was accomplished, he felt, each would recognize his/her own unique past and its part in forming a larger whole.[16]

TEACHERS COLLEGE, COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY PROGRAM

An academic institution which also seemed sympathetic to the deeper issues of teaching immigrant adults was Teachers College, Columbia University. The developed program there was a short-lived event, first appearing in the College course announcements in academic year 1924-25 under "Immigrant Education," in 1927-28, underwent a name change to "Adult Education for the Foreign Born," by 1931-32 was subsumed in the specialization of adult education, and by 1932-33, appeared for the last time in the catalogue listings.[17] Immigrant Education or Adult Education for the Foreign Born, used interchangeably, was an area of study aimed at those individuals who would be teaching immigrant adults, not the immigrants themselves. For the area of specialization, a year of course work was taken in reference to a student's major discipline. A diploma was only awarded in conjunction with degrees.[18]

Essentially five classes made up the core of the diploma program in Immigrant Education through its existence. "Adult Education for the Foreign Born" (originally called "Immigrant Education") addressed the overall adjustment of foreign born adults to American social conditions. The traditions, culture, history and economic conditions of "selected racial groups" were presented along with the difficulties involved in their adaptation to life in the United States. Acquaintance was made with the immigration pattern and policies, and those agencies which provided assistance in adaptation.

For those teachers with minimal exposure to an adult population, "supervised field work" was available in conjunction with the state's department of education. "Teaching English to Foreigners" consisted of two entities, one with non-English speaking adults in evening schools, and the other on a broader professional scale. The idea of concreteness appeared for the student when occasionally lessons were taught to them by native speakers. The last course, "Neighborhood and Community," examined those two concepts in relation to education and social work by considering issues characteristic of community life.[19]

Thus, it appeared that the program offered at Teachers College attempted to enlighten the prospective teachers not only on the Americanization aspect, but dealt with the sophisticated and more meaningful issues of cultural understanding, empathy, and adulthood. It offered professional guidance by applying educational principles for those working with this population of adults.

Postscript. Generally speaking, the attempt at Americanization by American educators had shortcomings. In part they were due to a variety of reasons, none of which was the sole cause, but certainly contributed to its demise. To list a few of the documented reasons of the failure to attract and hold their target population: an inappropriate use of materials; a lack of understanding of immigrant cultures; patronizing attitudes of American educators toward their immigrant student; refusal to allow the foreign born to participate in the planning of their own educational experience; factions of immigrant distrust of various religious groups' motives; and the immigrants tiring of the whole affair.[20]

Ironically, education provided by immigrant communities on their own fared far better, in part because they planned and taught the material themselves, or through second generation ethnic communities, they taught in the native languages without violating cultural traditions, and the sponsors of such programs were institutions that were familiar to the immigrants. Probably of prime importance why American educators failed while immigrant educators succeeded was that their curriculum addressed not only Americanization, but a host of the other intellectual and cultural interests held by the immigrants.[21]

DISCUSSION OF ETHICAL ISSUES

The Americanization program of the 1920's provides a perfect example of the number and complexity of ethical issues involved for an adult educator in a social action initiative. Upon doing research for this account, it seems that the "writing was on the wall" regarding its failure as a massive adult education attempt. And the failure can be rooted in the area of ethics and principles of adult education. Aside from becoming angered over the attempts with which some of the activities were carried out, it causes one to confront ethical issues which transcend any one particular social action initiative, and to see that they encompass all adult education for social change. As that is the case, though the comments may address the collective behavior of Americanization on occasion, their relevance is applicable to other such social action concerns.

The idea of Americanization in its time and place seems innocuous enough. On the surface it appears to provide a process of socialization for a group of adults to ease their transition into a new society. An ethical problem surfaces, however, when attempts are made to define just what that socialization process should entail, especially when it excludes the opinions of those being socialized. What are the motives of those doing the defining? Whose perception is valid, justified, right? Who benefits from the action being taken, and how? Certainly the responses vary depending upon who is asking and answering the questions. No doubt the immigrants would have had quite different motives for socialization than the Americanizers and their tactics would have reflected those beliefs. As adult educators in a position to precipitate change, it is of utmost importance to recognize bias (our own and others') and ask these hard questions. Perhaps one cannot answer them, or finds the answers too disconcerting. As a professional, though, one needs to be aware of conflicts within the realm of ideal versus real. Perhaps the answers to searching questions cause doubts for the educator. So much the better if those doubts force the professional to examine his/her own motives for participating.

A saving grace for the Americanization movement is that not all went about ignorant of what was being done to the adult immigrant learner. Teachers College is in good company with Jane Addams and John Dewey in that is emphasized an understanding of the immigrants' situation to those (students) who would be teaching the foreign born. Albeit the number influenced was most probably disproportionate to the number of "adult educators" at large, a message was being sent. Course work reflected the idea that there are deeper issues at hand to a problem--cultural beliefs, a history, values, for example, which cannot and should not be ignored. Empathy or the idea of relevance for the educator was fostered when a student, in a simulated situation, sat through a lecture given in a foreign tongue. Though one may not agree with a particular method, a principle was being articulated just the same.

Another area of concern is the massive nature of the collective behavior. It seems that anyone and everyone got into the act of public service to help the foreigners. To what end? Does not a professional educator have the right to question a sponsor and try to place one's own actions into perspective?

In summary, these issues cannot be satisfactorily addressed by anyone but the adult educator him/her self. Social action initiatives are replete with emotions, biases, activities, all from which the educator is not exempt. The manner in which each chooses to examine and share his/her own beliefs is perhaps irrelevant but nonetheless crucial to be done. The idea that one does do some soul searching and at least becomes acquainted with the myriad of nuances is probably the most one could ask.

FOOTNOTES

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18 *Teachers College Announcement*, 1927-28, pp.9,10,112.

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21 Seller, "Success and Failure," 88.

THE INFLUENCE OF LEARNING STYLE AND TEACHING STYLE ON ACHIEVEMENT AMONG NONTRADITIONAL HEALTH PROFESSIONAL STUDENTS

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Abstract

When examining the achievement of nontraditional health professional students, the influence of learning style was found to be slight. However, teaching style is a major influence on student achievement.

Introduction

The health care industry is currently concerned with the health professional's performance level in the practice setting and the role institutions of higher education can play in the enhancement of these performance levels. As one of the most complex service industries, it is plagued with situations of rapid changes in technology, an overwhelming demand for services, growing competition, complex financial and service structures, and a decreasing attraction of the industry to individuals selecting a health career. These situations are becoming common occurrences which are challenging the health care industry to focus attention on the optimization of resources with specific attention being given to needed human resources.

Changes in health care delivery practices are creating new needs and determining new directions in the academic preparation of the health care professional. These directions give focus to the preparation, maintenance, and improvement of the health professional with considerable attention being given to program development and management aspects of educational programs for the health professional. Germane to building a relevant curriculum is delivering the instruction, assessing achievement of the learner, and identifying factors that influence the achievement of the health professional learner. At the same time that the change in the health industry are occurring, adults are returning to institutions of higher education and are seeking a different style of program delivery along with different educational strategies. In the new but older adult student populations are the health professionals who need course offerings at times which accommodate both full-time employment in the health industry and part-time study in an accredited program in higher education. These adults are returning to the campuses with an associate or baccalaureate degree in a health-related discipline and are seeking higher education preparation.

Despite the number of adults returning to campuses, it appears educational institutions do not know much about the factors that influence this nontraditional student's style of learning. If these students are to be adequately served, institutions of higher education must assess their needs and motivation, understand the differences between adult learners and the traditional age college students, and make appropriate adjustments in administrative procedures, program delivery formats, curricular designs, and the teaching-learning processes. Learning styles focus attention on how people learn. Understanding how people learn is an integral aspect of program success and ultimately student achievement. On the other hand, teaching styles focus on the behavior of teachers with the assumption that teaching behaviors are related to student achievement. If it is possible to identify systematically the nontraditional health professional's learning style and the instructor's teaching style, then it would appear that effective and efficient learning could be more finely tuned for

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achievement. The formal educational systems that are involved in the health professional's learning would be well served to give attention to the adult literature base which supports a distinct teaching style for adults.

The Purpose

The purpose of this study was to determine what effect learning styles of health professional learners and teaching styles of health professional instructors have on academic achievement of nontraditional students in the various allied health related programs in a four-year university. The specific research questions in this study included the following: (a) Do learning style differences exist among nontraditional health professional students? (b) Do teaching style differences exist among instructors of nontraditional health professional students? (c) Is there a significant relationship between student learning styles and adjusted end-of-course grade? (d) Is there a significant relationship between teaching style and student's adjusted end-of-course grades? (e) Is there a significant interaction between learning style and teaching style on student achievement?

Methodology

The design for this research study followed an ex post facto survey format with a nontraditional, higher education student population and the instructors of these students. The independent variables were the nontraditional health professional student's learning style and the respective instructor's teaching style. The dependent variable was the student's achievement which was measured by analyzing the student's final course grades. These final course grades were adjusted for individual differences in ability to succeed in college by comparing them to past performance in college coursework. For this purpose overall grade point average (GPA) was used as an indicator of the student's past performance in the college setting. Since students sometimes score higher in their major than in all courses in their program, the cumulative grade point average was correlated with the grade point in the major. General demographic information was collected from students which included age, gender, marital status, number of dependent children, income range, ethnicity, major of study, highest degree of education obtained, location of classes by city, student college classification, and number of years employed in the health field. General demographic information from the instructors included age, gender, years of teaching, years of teaching at Southwest Texas State University (SWTSU), primary program assignment, and educational preparation. The null hypotheses for this study tested the relationships between the independent variables of learning and teaching style and the dependent variable of achievement among nontraditional health professional students.

The study population was undergraduate and graduate students enrolled at Southwest Texas State University in the major study fields of allied health education, allied health research, and health administration and the instructors assigned to teach in the respective programs. Two instruments were used to collect data from this group. The Canfield Learning Style Inventory (CLSI) was used for the collection of data related to the student's learning style (Canfield, 1983). The Principles of Adult Learning Scale (PALS) was used for the collection of data on the instructor's teaching style (Conti, 1978).

The general demographic information obtained from the students and the instructors was organized into simple frequency distributions. General demographic information from the students included age, gender, marital status, number of children, income range, ethnicity, major of academic study, highest degree of education obtained, location of classes by city, student college classification, and number of years employed in the health field. General demographic information from the instructors included age, gender, years of teaching, years of teaching at Southwest Texas State University, primary program assignment, and level of educational preparation.

The CLSI and the PALS findings were analyzed by general frequency distributions by the subjects in the study and by instrument items. Each of the demographic variables was analyzed by means of analysis of covariance to determine if that variable influenced student achievement. Analysis of covariance procedures was also used to examine the relationship between learning style and achievement and between teaching style and student achievement and to explore the interactions among the variables of learning style, teaching style, and student achievement. In the analysis of covariance procedures, various classifications were used for the independent variables. Academic achievement was divided into five letter grades of A, B, C, D, and F which are commonly used in university grading. The learning style scores in the areas of conditions, content, mode, and expectancy were grouped according to the percentile categories indicated for females on Canfield's Learning Style Inventory Percentile Profile sheet. These categories were as follows: Low = 1 to 10th percentile; Moderately Low = 11th to 39th percentile; Moderate = 40th to 69th percentile; Moderately High = 70th to 89th percentile, and High = 90th to 99th percentile. In this study, teaching style scores were grouped by one-half standard deviations from the mean. These following categories were used: Moderate = between the mean and one-half standard deviation; Moderately High or Moderately Low = between one-half and one standard deviation from the mean; and High or Low = at least one standard deviation from the mean.

Findings

Data were collected from all 256 students enrolled in 12 and 16 week courses conducted by the university in the Texas cities of Austin, San Antonio, San Marcos, and Temple. When students were duplicated by individual classes taken, this created a population of 584 students for this study. Instructor data were collected from the total instructor population of 18. Two of the faculty members were adjunct instructors. Some of the data collected was demographic information and was used to construct profiles of students and of the instructors. The other data collected consisted of scores from the CLSI and PALS. Course grades and the various grade point averages were collected from the individual student transcripts. The demographic data were organized into simple frequency distributions and the relationship of achievement, learning style, and teaching style was analyzed by means of analysis of covariance. Since a high positive correlation ($r = .69$) was found between the cumulative grade point average and grade point average in the major for the 584 duplicated students in this study, all analyses of covariance were calculated using the student's cumulative grade point average.

This study reveals a typical student profile of a 34-year old, married, Anglo, middle-class, working female with no children. This student is a graduate student with a major in health administration, having a grade point average of 3.52.

When students were labelled solely by their dominate style in each preference area, no differences were found. Therefore, the distribution within each of the preference areas of conditions, content, mode, and expectancy was examined. This procedure indicated that no significance differences existed in most of the areas which make up the preferred area of conditions of learning. Significance was found only in the area of authority. Those students who expressed a strong desire for classroom discipline and order and for a well-informed instructor achieved at the highest rate.

Significant differences were found in two of the areas of preferences for content. Those who showed a strong preference for working with numbers and logic received higher grades than those with less interest in logical problem-solving. Those who had a preference for learning by working with language or people did more poorly in class. Thus, the students' achieved differently according to two distinct preferences for content with a preference for learning logical type content being the most helpful.

These health professional students also achieved differently according to their preferences for mode of learning. Although neither listening, reading, nor iconic produced a difference, the strength of a student's preference for learning through direct experience influenced achievement. Those who had a moderately strong preference for learning by direct experience achieved at the highest rate while those who had a moderate dislike for learning by direct experience achieved at the lowest rate.

Expectancy scores were directly related to student achievement. Students that expected to do well achieved above the average for the total group while those who anticipated performing at an unsatisfactory level scored significantly below the average for the group.

The 18 instructors in the study averaged 11 years of teaching experience with 8 years of tenure at SWTSU. All held at least a master's degree; 15.8% held only a master's degree; 59.1% of the instructors reported additional work beyond the master's degree. One-fourth of the faculty members had an earned doctorate. This group of instructors were predominately male (62.55%).

Teaching style is a major influence on student achievement. Students of teachers with a moderate or moderately high preference for a teacher-centered approach to classroom instruction achieved less than all other students. However, the students of teachers who had a strong preference for the teacher-centered approach achieved above the mean. Although the students of the teacher with the high scores on PALS experienced only slightly above average achievement, the students of the teachers who moderately supported the collaborative mode demonstrated the greatest amount of achievement of all students in the study. Thus, while the teacher's practice of an explicit style contributed positively to student achievement, the judicious implementation of the collaborative mode led to the greatest student achievement.

The interaction of teaching style and learning style on student achievement was also explored with analysis of covariance. When students were grouped according to their one most preferred learning style in each preference area, no significant differences were found except in the area of expectancy. At all expectation levels, moderate support of the teacher-centered approach produced the lowest amount of student achievement. Strong teacher-centered styles interacted most favorably with those expecting to perform at either the average or the unsatisfactory level. The collaborative teaching style interacted most favorably for students who expected to do either above average or superior.

Discussion

The learning style findings indicate that a knowledge of the student's overall learning style or of the learning preferences in various areas composing learning style may not be of tremendous value in facilitating student achievement. The lack of any significant differences when students were categorized by their dominant mode indicated that all the elements within a preference area were equally successful in helping students to achieve. Therefore, perhaps a knowledge of the actual learning strategies used by the student in each learning situation might be of greater value. Learning strategies refer to the immediate tacits that a learner uses to deal with a specific learning situation. While learning strategies may be grounded in the student's basic learning style, they incorporate adjustments for various situational factors. The learner's final success in the educational setting may be dependent upon the appropriateness of the learning strategy which is employed.

Likewise, when the examination focused within each preference area, most of the findings indicated that one style was usually not more useful than the others in helping students to achieve. In those areas where differences were found, obvious links can be inferred from the nature of the allied health field. The greater achievement by those who demonstrated a strong preference for the learning condition of authority could reflect that health professionals have been prepared in specific health specialities by focusing on procedures, standards, and rules. These professionals must have accurate knowledge to correctly assess life and death situations. Having an orderly classroom with a knowledgeable instructor is a secure format for thoroughly gathering the information which will later be applied in the health care delivery setting.

Although the health professions have a service orientation and work with people, their content is based in the hard sciences and is exact. Health care professionals are frequently placed in situations where they must not only perform but must also act according to prescribed standards. Such behavior puts a premium on precision and on logical thinking. Consequently, achievement by those who have a preference for learning numeric content can be predicted. Likewise, the applied nature of the health professions favors those who prefer a direct experience mode of learning.

The participants in this study had at least 2 years of post-secondary training and were voluntarily returning to the university setting for continuing education. They, therefore, had a solid record of achievement in education upon which to predict their level of success in these health profession courses. Most felt they would do well. The findings from this study indicate that they were aware of their past record and honest in their assessment of future success.

A paramount finding of this study was that teaching style has a significant effect on student achievement. The pattern of student achievement with the various teachers supported the claim in the adult education literature that the collaborative mode is effective for teaching adults. The students of teachers who were between the mean and one standard deviation below the mean on PALS achieved less than the other groups. However, achievement rose above the mean for students whose teachers were at least one full standard deviation below the mean and who therefore practiced a definitive teaching style. Nevertheless, the achievement levels were highest for the students of teachers who favored the collaborative mode. Thus, Knowles (1970) assertion that the teacher is the most important variable influencing the learning climate (p. 41) and his recommendation that adult educators use the collaborative mode appears to be sound advice.

This study provides additional situational specificity to the overall adult education literature base. The exact nature of the allied health field which deals with human survival requires that the curriculum transmit certain knowledges and skills. The significant teaching style findings decidedly show that treating the health professionals as adults while simultaneously respecting the integrity of the curriculum facilitated the greatest amount of student learning. This combination of approaches toward the student and the curriculum was obtained by applying the collaborative mode. However, it was not applied in an extreme fashion. Those teachers who practiced the collaborative mode but who also kept sight of the demands of the curriculum tended to foster the greatest student achievement. Thus, although the general adult education literature suggests in broad terms that the collaborative mode is the most effective method for teaching adults, the application of this mode in the allied health field must be tempered with the demands of the curriculum in order for it to be successfully accepted by the students.

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Reading on the Job: Reading Ability and Levels in Training and Job Settings

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ABSTRACT

This study investigated the reading ability of selected students at the Albuquerque Technical Vocational Institute and the reading requirements in two training and job settings.

Statement of the Problem

In addressing the problem of reading level assessment in vocational settings, the immediate question arises of how it can be done since there is no standardized test to measure the reading of vocational students. Sherrell (1983) used the Nelson Denny Reading Test for his work but questions remained from his results. If students read at the 10.5 level and the reading materials tested at the 14 to 16 level on readability scales, then how did students manage? The conclusion that because teachers spent 30% of class time helping students read seemed, at best, a partial answer.

In this study it was hypothesized that students prior knowledge would enhance their ability to comprehend job and training related reading material. To test this idea the Nelson-Denny Reading Test was used to establish a standardized reading level and then specific reading ability was measured with cloze tests made from job and training materials in the students' given fields. If the hypothesis was upheld, then the students should score significantly higher on the cloze tests than on the Nelson-Denny.

Because student reading ability is only one aspect of the whole problem, the materials used in training and on the job were analyzed and interviews were conducted in the field.

Methodology

Based on a suspected discrepancy between student reading ability and the reading demands on the job, a research project was developed and implemented to investigate the reading ability of technical-vocational students and the reading levels and tasks required in two job areas: Office Occupations and Architectural Drafting.

A protocol was developed, including: (1) testing of student reading ability using the Nelson-Denny Reading Test and cloze tests based on job and course materials; (2) sampling of reading material and determining readability levels in job settings and training courses; and (3) interview procedures involving supervisors and vocational program graduates in job settings.

Comparisons were made between the readability of the job materials and vocational course texts. In addition, the relationship between student reading ability and the reading levels and tasks in job settings and training courses was explored. Finally, the relationships between the Nelson-Denny reading scores and the cloze test scores were investigated.

Subjects

In the pilot study conducted for the Albuquerque Technical-Vocational Institute, students were tested in the Architectural Drafting Program and the Office Occupation Program. The students were post-secondary, but not all were high school graduates or holders of a GED. In each program, students from the first and third trimester were tested with the Nelson-Denny on the first day and the two cloze tests on the second. In Architectural Drafting 20 first trimester students participated compared to 6 in the third trimester. In Office Occupations 11 first trimester students were tested versus 7 in the third trimester. Because of the small number of subjects, it was felt that rigorous statistical analysis would be inappropriate; therefore, in the results section raw percentages are given, indicating direction.

Cloze Tests

Cloze testing is a method of systematically deleting words from a text and then measuring how well students are able to fill in the blanks. In these cloze tests every fifth word was deleted while leaving the first and last sentences intact in a 300 word passage. In general, if a student can fill in 44-57 percent of the slots with the exact word deleted, then the material is suitable for instructional purposes. If the students score over the 57 percent level, the material is suitable for independent reading (Bormuth, 1967, 1968; Rankin, 1969).

To give a greater range, the first cloze was an easy passage taken from a text in the students' fields (6th grade level in Architectural Drafting and 8th grade in Office Occupations). It was felt that this would give students confidence in the testing procedure (which few were familiar with) as well as establishing a low testing floor. The second cloze was taken from real life job material, and in both fields tested at the college graduate reading level. Such a level would give a high ceiling to the testing procedure and insure that the best readers would be challenged.

Three types of grading have been cited: exact, synonymic, and appropriate word. Ruddell (1964) and Asher, et al (1970) note that there is no significant difference between exact grading and synonymic grading (± 5%). Studies have chosen to ignore appropriate word grading which entails accepting any word which fits the slot syntactically and semantically (as in synonymic grading) and also any word which fits semantically into the context but may be syntactically different from the deleted word. In this study exact and appropriate word grading were used.

Readability

Training and job materials were analyzed for readability level to see if there was a discrepancy between the two as well as to provide information about the reading level needed by students in both areas. While readability formulas are not without criticism, they can provide a basis of comparison on at least the superficial, syntactic level for samples obtained from different books or different fields. As such, they are useful. For this study four formulas were used: Fry, Raygor, Flesch, and the Dale-Chall. While the Spache and Gunning-Fog formulas were also applied to passages, they were judged not suitable because of discrepancies with the other four. By taking the average of four scales it was felt that a more reliable level could be established.

Nelson-Denny Reading Test

The Nelson-Denny Reading Test was selected for several reasons: it had been used in previous research and therefore could be compared directly with the results that Sherrell received, and it has a range from 6-15 grade level in normal administration which appeared to be enough range for the population.

The major problem with such a test is of course that it is validated for academic purposes aimed at college-bound students. This is reflected in the vocabulary section word choice as well as the passage selection of the comprehension section. Vocabulary words such as "blithe spirit" and "unmitigated" and comprehension passages about the Latin poets and philosophy are clearly outside of the normal reading required of vocational students. As such, there is a real question as to whether the Nelson-Denny is "culture fair" for vocational students who are outside "academic culture."

Despite these problems, the Nelson-Denny provided a standard against which to measure students from a variety of occupations while the cloze tests could probe in more depth in specific occupations.

Interviews

The third part of the study involved interviews which contributed information at three levels: supervisors gave a managerial perspective on the reading needs on the job and the reading abilities of new entry-level personnel; new hires gave views on whether training had adequately prepared them for the job they were presently holding and whether their reading level was adequate for the material they found on the job; and the materials collected in the workplace were analyzed and used later in preparing cloze tests for the trainees.

A hierarchical questionnaire base on Bloom's Taxonomy was used to assess the depth of comprehension needed by readers on the job.

Results

The results of the Nelson-Denny testing were in line with Sherrell's results. The students in Architectural Drafting tested at the 12.5 grade level while the Office Occupations students were at the 10.8 level. For both sets of students the vocabulary scores were a grade and a half higher than the comprehension scores. This is appropriate in that the vocabulary test requires simpler discrete skills rather than the integrative skills required by the comprehension section.

The readability results for Architectural Drafting showed that the textbooks were at the 12.4 and the job materials tested at the 14.7 level. In Office Occupations the textbooks tested at the 14.3 grade level while the job materials were at the 15.0 level.

Given the difference between the reading level of the students and the readability level of the materials, one could well imagine a problem. The cloze tests provided illuminating results. As previously noted, two cloze tests were given, one easy and one difficult.

On the first cloze the first trimester drafting students had 62 percent correct while the fourth trimester students had 61 percent, using exact grading. Using appropriate word grading, the first trimester students had 80 percent and the fourth trimester students had 84 percent correct. This indicated that students who read at the 12th grade level have no difficulty with sixth grade material.

On the second cloze test the assumption was that some students would be able to read it well and others would be less able. Using exact grading, first trimester students scored 22 percent correct compared to 36 percent correct for the fourth trimester students. However, when tests were graded accepting appropriate words, the percentages jumped to 56 and 70 percent correct respectively. There are two items of great interest here: the discrepancy of 34 percentage points between the exact grading and the appropriate word grading and the 14 point advantage of the fourth trimester students.

The literature notes no significant difference between exact and synonymic scoring. To discover a 34 percent difference in both sets of drafting students indicates a significantly different finding. The possible reasons for this discrepancy will be discussed in the conclusion.

The other finding, that the fourth trimester students held a 14 percentage point advantage over the first trimester students, supports the psycholinguistic point of view in that the more experienced students had more background in the area and, therefore, were better able to complete the cloze test. Where the first trimester students were at the 56 percent level for the cloze, in the instructional range but bordering on the independent range, the fourth trimester students at 70 percent were well into the independent range using the appropriate word grading method. Neither group was at his instructional level if one graded by the exact word method.

In Office Occupations, the easy cloze results were similar to the drafting students. Both groups of students had 78 percent correct with appropriate word grading compared to 45 percent for the first trimester and 52 percent for the third trimester when exact grading was used. These scores were to be expected as the cloze was at the 8.1 level of readability. Of the three students who scored below the independent level, two were in the instructional level, even though the Nelson-Denny scores for all three indicated a sixth grade reading level.

On the second cloze, which used job reading material, the first trimester students had 78 percent correct with appropriate word grading and 54 percent using exact word. The third trimester students had scores of 74 and 49 percent respectively. Both groups were therefore in the independent level by appropriate word grading and at the instructional level by exact grading. These scores follow the pattern seen in architectural drafting and appear to be for similar reasons.

An interesting note about the office occupations scores occurs for the low readers. High level readers should be able to do the cloze well, but that the low readers did well is supportive of the initial assumptions. Of the students who scored below the tenth grade level on the Nelson-Denny, three in the third trimester and two in the first, the average appropriate word score was 60.4 percent while the exact word score was 44 percent. This indicates that these five students with a Nelson-Denny average of eighth grade can read college graduate material in their own field with good comprehension.

Conclusion

The implications of this study move in a number of directions: support for the psycholinguistic perspective, differences between general English and technical English, new information with regard to cloze testing, and insight into problems in vocational reading.

It appears that the psycholinguistic stance is upheld in that students who test at the 10th and 12th grades respectively can read at a much higher level within their fields because of their background knowledge and familiarity with the material.

In addition, these high scores on the cloze tests may be explained by the structure of technical English. In a general English passage selected as a cloze, there may be one best word to fill a slot. In technical English, this is not necessarily the case, as in this example taken from the first cloze test: "Walls are started by ________________ a frame." The 'correct' word (and the only one allowed in exact grading) is "making". Within the context of framing a house, we can easily slot in "erecting", "assembling", "forming", "nailing" and "raising" to name some of the possibilities which are synonymically correct, but not exactly so. This pattern holds throughout with regard to exact grading. In technical English, there is a greater possibility of changing forms due to the use of different verb forms, such as the stative, to a much greater extent than in general English, as in this example: "The vertical boards are ______________ studs." (The stative is like the passive in form but the person is not known; it is a state and statement of the action or situation.) The exact answer is "called". "The vertical boards are called "studs." With little imagination, there being no clues to indicate otherwise, one could use an adjective rather than a past participle. "Frame studs" might be used as easily and correctly as "called studs". In this case we might use a verb such as "named" or adjectives such as "2X4", "wooden", "solid", "frame", and "wall", to name just a few, using four different categories of adjectives. These latter are semantically appropriate words as they fit the context but are certainly not synonymic as they are different parts of speech.

The implications of this variability with regard to cloze testing and reading level are important. Technical English is usually thought of as precise, concise, and sparse. The best of it is, but what is important and yet not noted is that all the information must be in the writing--nothing can be left for assumption. This demand for completion forces a great deal more redundancy into the work by careful explication of all the details. As a particular technical description is carried forward, the repetition of individual words becomes terribly tedious, leading to what is known as "synonymic repetition," the repeating of a word or phrase in a different manner to ease the writing style. Because of this synonymic repetition, any time such a word or phrase is deleted in a cloze test, there are several possibilities to fill the slot, allowing a much greater variability of good,semantically appropriate choices, but making exact fill-ins very difficult. This variability of appropriate words creates a spaciousness which allows a poorer reader more chances to apprehend information from the page.

General English, on the other hand, can be much looser in construction, with many more assumptions open to interpretation. The freer, flowing style of general English, while stylistically easier for an experienced reader, may provide much less information for a poor reader to grasp when compared to the more precise writing of a technical passage. This lack of explicit information slows down the poor reader vis-a-vis his more experienced brother. Thus the carefully defined world of technical discourse gives a much greater amount of information to readers if they are familiar with the subject matter to begin with, allowing more complete "comprehension."

In light of the spaciousness and redundancy of technical writing, cloze testing must be viewed differently. Synonymic repetition demands that graders take a more liberal stance in interpreting cloze answers because the exact word in the passage may in fact be a synonym. Because of the variation in technical English, it appears that appropriate word grading of cloze tests gives the best approximation of reading comprehension.

The question of reading in vocational education defies simple answers. For the investigators to say that students above the seventh grade level in reading can compete would be premature because reading is only one variable in the whole realm of experience. One can say, though, that those below the seventh grade appear to be less able to compete. Additionally, it must be noted from the interview data that reading in many cases is just one part of the problem. Thinking skills and study skills appear to be where reading skills are needed most critically. The ability to know when one does not know and the ability to look up what one does not know are the skills that precede job reading and are often confused with reading itself.

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TUITION IN THE MULTI-METHOD DELIVERY SYSTEM
A PRELIMINARY STUDY

(This study was performed at the request of colleagues at the Open Univeristy in Wales. It examines the planning and teaching learning process of tutorials in the context of the Open University system.)

Tutorials are a major development of face-to-face teaching in the Open University's multi-method system of course delivery.

Tuition as a process of teaching in the Open University has a role which has been documented and explored by Murgatroyd (1980), Evans (1982), and others. These authors had interests beyond the specific situation in the Welsh Region, nor has any other study available to the researcher had the specific focus of planning and execution of tutorials.

The extent of the similarities and differences between tutorials in the Welsh Region and those in other regions needs to be determined. Only through an examination of the situation will any comparison become possible.

This examination of the tutorial had the impact of the multi-method system of delivery on tutorial planning and process as its focus. Because of the publication of the Report of the Long Term Review Group on Independent Learning Strategies, it was deemed appropriate to look for evidence of efforts to support independent learning in the tutorial process. Time, distance, and other constraints clearly limited the potential scope of this preliminary study, but the findings will be of interest to those who wish to pursue further research in this area.

The researcher observed eleven tutors and tutor-counsellors who participated in eleven interviews and three post-foundation and eight foundation course tutorials. The average number of the students who participated in the tutorials was six while the range was from two to thirteen.

All foundation level courses were represented in tutorials held in Cardiff, Barry, Merthyr Tydfil, and Abergavenny. This distribution of study centres involved two urban and two rural centres. The three post-foundation level tutorials in Arts were held in Cardiff. All tutors had held previous tutorials within the context of their respective courses. The foundation level students were attending either the third or fourth meeting for their particular course. Relationships were established between tutors and students by this stage.

The next section of this paper will review the results of the interviews. The following section will describe the observations of the tutorials.

INTERVIEWS

Each tutor voluntarily participated in a brief, twenty minute interview prior to the tutorial. They were asked to describe the process of the tutorial, to identify the other modes of teaching which had influenced the planning, and to describe how any other modes of teaching which had influenced the planning. These general questions were asked and response recorded. No probes were used, but the tutors were asked to clarify responses as required.

All tutors had a plan for the tutorial process which they were able to describe to the interviewer. A wide range of methods including informal lectures, lecturettes, demonstrations, media (audio tapes), and various kinds of group discussion were included in the responses. Two tutors indicated that they wished to receive information from students about concerns or problems in order to shape the content of the tutorials.

Five tutors indicated that they wished to review prior tutor-marked assignments, normally described as TMA's, with their students. Future tutor-marked assignments were to be discussed in two tutorials.

Each tutor was asked to 'identify' other methods of teaching in the Open University system which had influenced their preparation for the tutorial to follow the interview. The answers are displayed in Table 1.

Table 1
Open University Teaching Methods Affecting Tutorial Planning

	Foundation (N=8)	Post-Foundation (N=3)	Total (N=11)
Tutor-marked assignments:	7	3	10
Media a) t.v.	5	2	7
b) radio	3	0	3
Published Materials a) units:	8	3	11
b) texts:	1	0	1
Kits:	0	1[a]	1
Others:	1[b]	1[c]	2

a) audio cassette
b) industrial visit
c) course project

The mean numbers of methods which influenced the preparation of the particular tutorial was 3.3. The tutor-marked assignments were clearly the most frequently mentioned methods, but another question was required to determine any potential weighting of the methods.

Each tutor was asked to describe how the other methods had influenced the preparation for the tutorial. No specific probes were used, but questions of clarification were posed when necessary.

The tutors focussed their attention primarily on the units and tutor-marked assignments as they described the incorporation of other methods of teaching into their planning for the tutorial. No other methods received more than a passing comment in spite of the findings displayed in Table 1.

Two tutors felt it necessary to review recent tutor-marked assignments. Two other tutors believed that they should help students prepare for future tutor-marked assignments. In one other situation, it was noted that this was an inappropriate time to discuss the tutor-marked assignments for the course. This individual was the only tutor who had not indicated the tutor-marked assignment as a planning factor (see Table 1).

The comments on the units included reference to "themes" or material from outside the unit by three tutors. One tutor indicated that there was a need to review an area which previous students had found difficult to understand. One tutor indicated that he followed the course study guide. It was difficult to find any clear trends in the comments in this section on the incorporation of units.

Two tutors indicated quite clearly that they wished to have students 'identify' specific problems. These tutors had made efforts to plan a process by which these problems would emerge.

OBSERVATIONS OF TUTORIALS

This part of the research involved sitting in the room during the entire length of the tutorial. This observation permitted the researcher to see the implementation of the plan as well as the dynamics of the tutorial.

Tutors were able to follow the plans in general which they had set. A wide variety of teaching methods were displayed with considerable skill in many situations.

Four tutors had introductory periods of more than five minutes where relationships were established and problems could be comfortably identified by students. The other tutors had relatively short periods to re-enter the classroom situation and to identify problems.

In certain cases, the request for problem identification was made in such a way that no response would be appropriate. The tutors made it clear that there was much to be done or insufficient time was allowed for response.

Two tutorials featured very extensive, general reviews of tutor-marked assignments. Of the remaining nine groups, seven tutorials included some reference to the tutor-marked assignments of the past, present or future.

The focus on the units in the planning process was demonstrated clearly in the tutorials. Little reference was made to the other modes with the exception of two short comments on television programmes and comments on the industrial visit and project (see Table 1). One aspect of the process of discussion should be noted. Although several instructors provided open discussion among students, a majority clearly felt the need to comment on each student's contribution. It is quite possible to foster discussion while reserving the right to summarize and to correct any mistatement or misunderstanding in the content. Time pressures may contribute to a tutor-dominated discussion.

SUMMARY

It is difficult to make definitive comments based on this study. Future research is clearly indicated for the corroboration and extension of these findings.

Nevertheless, it should be noted that the findings were shared at a meeting of staff tutors, tutors, and tutor-counsellors from the South-East sectors to share the results. Those persons in attendance were asked to reflect on the findings and to comment after group discussion. The consensus was that certain trends had been identified.

Two key findings in particular could be reviewed. The first finding is the major influence of tutor-marked assignments and units on the planning and implementation. The second finding concerns the lack in certain instances of dialogue to assist the students to identify concerns and participate more fully in discussion which widen understanding of the content. (see also Murgatroyd, 1980).

The findings described in this study display minimal support for independent learning through the tutorial process. Most tutors clearly preferred a process in which they retain major control of content and process.

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PERSPECTIVE TRANSFORMATION AS AN ADULT LEARNING THEORY TO EXPLAIN AND FACILITATE CHANGE IN MALE SPOUSE ABUSERS

Presenter: George "Bud" Williams

Abstract: Perspective transformation combined with change in reasoning tactics, familial exposure to abusive behavior, income, age, education, change in sex role preference explains a high degree of variance in change in abusive behavior.

Statement of the Problem

This study attempted to operationalize the adult learning theory of perspective transformation (Mezirow, 1978) and apply it to the social problem of spouse abuse. Mezirow's theory which was developed through a national field study of women in re-entry programs in community colleges seemed to explain a process of change similar to what men involved in spouse abuse would have to undergo to diminish in their use of abusive behavior.

The literature on spouse abuse indicates that psychopathology is not a major cause of spouse abuse due to the extreme prevalence of this disorder and the variation of this problem among cultural groups (Straus, Gelles, & Steinmetz, 1980). The predominant theories focus on learned behavior interacting with perceived cultural sanctions.

These theories can be generally divided into three categories: (a) learned behavior theories emphasizing childhood exposure to abusive behavior in the familial relationship; lifelong exposure to violence via the media, cinema, and peers; and learned male dominance roles and use of abusive behavior to maintain those roles (Bandura, 1973; Bowker, 1983; Straus & Hotaling, 1980); (b) stress/provocation theories building on the general stress model, the cartharsis theory of stress release, and violence as a response to provocation (Finn, 1983; Farrington, 1980; Lewis, 1981; Walker, 1979); (c) marital conflict/power theories based on general conflict theories; differences in resources such as education, income, interpersonal skills relative to both husband and wife; and power based on socially prescribed roles (Allen & Straus, 1980; Goode, 1974; LaRossa, 1980; Pagelow, 1981).

Each of these categories of theories seems to explain only a portion of spouse abuse separately. The category of learned behavior cannot account for all abusive behavior directed toward the spouse because many, who are similarly acculturated and exposed to violence against women, do not use abusive behavior toward their wives. The stress/provocation models alone do not explain why many men who experience similarly high levels of stress and frustration do not beat their wives and why women with the same high levels of stress and frustration do not beat their husbands. The conflict/power models break down when looking at various ethnic minorities and other cultures where there are high levels of conflict and yet low levels of violence and when one compares the low percentage of marriages in our society in which the resources are in favor of the woman to the high percentage of violent marriages. It seems clear that either more comprehensive theories are needed or a common thread needs to be found that interacts with the other categories of theories or stands alone to explain this phenomenon.

Because approximately 80% of those who are involved in spouse abuse have had childhood exposure to abusive behavior and many of the theories of spouse abuse have an element that is learned through the acculturation process or maintained through psychocultural assumptions, the theory of perspective transformation has been used as the common thread to integrate these theories into a more comprehensive whole.

Mezirow's theory attempts to explain how one's personalized structure of cultural and psychological assumptions, formed during childhood through the primary socialization process, undergoes change in adulthood. Women in re-entry programs in community colleges often faced many new roles, values, insights, and decisions and began to view themselves, their relationships, and their psychocultural context from a new perspective. This learning process seemed to require a critical reflective level of thinking that is only acquired as one passes into later adolescence and beyond. Mezirow suggested that as the process of perspective transformation took place one moved toward greater freedom from the past and gained a more inclusive framework for integrating new experiences and developing new behaviors.

Spouse abuse is growing in public attention just as has child abuse during the past two decades (Langley & Levy, 1977). It is estimated that over 15 million American marriages have had some form of violence between spouses (Benjamin & Walz, 1983) and one-third to one-half of all married couples engage in spouse assault (Langley & Levey, 1977; Walker, 1979). Spouse abuse has been shown to exist across all socioeconomic classes and within all educational levels (Klingbeil & Boyd, 1984).

Due to the women's movement of the seventies and emerging shelters and groups for battered women, much research has been done on the victim of spouse abuse, often bordering on blaming the victim (Wardell, 1981). Little research has been done on programs aimed at changing the batterer (Moore, 1979). Almost all of the theories on the causes of spouse abuse are based on information gathered from the abused women. It was therefore the intent of this study to focus on the batterer and on the process of change of those involved in a program designed to facilitate change in the batterer. It was designed as an exploratory study to determine how well the theory of perspective transformation could explain the process that led to the development of abusive behavior toward one's spouse and assist in understanding and facilitating change in that behavior.

Methodology

All males who sought help for spouse abuse from July, 1984 to May, 1985 who had been screened for conditions that would hinder participation in a men's treatment group offered by the Mental Health Division of the DuPage County Health Department were used for this study. Criteria for screening were uncontrolled substance abuse, overt psychosis, psychopathology hindering all remorse capacity, or extremely low verbal skills. Of the 46 who came into the county to seek help, only 3 were screened out for those reasons. Eighteen either dropped out before the first session or only attended the first several sessions of a 12-week long program. Twenty-five completed the 12-week program and were included in the study. Their wives or partners were also enlisted to control for response bias. The ages of the men ranged from 21 to 49 and the sample was very representative on most socioeconomic indicators of a cross-section of the population of DuPage County.

The review of the literature on both spouse abuse and perspective transformation suggested that as change in abusive behavior and perspective transformation occurred in this population of male batterers there most likely would be change in the self-acceptance dimension of self-esteem, self-perception of control, sex role preference in marriage and cohabitation, and tactics used when in conflict. Therefore, an intake interview to gather background data as well as five self-report instruments chozen to measure these variables were given as pretests. Nonphysical and physical abuse variables were measured by means of the Index of Spouse Abuse (McIntosh and Hudson, 1978). The self-acceptance aspect of self-esteem was measured by means of the Self-Esteem Scale (Rosenberg, 1965). Reasoning, verbal aggression, and violence tactics were measured by means of the Conflict Tactics Scales, Forms A and N (Straus, 1976). Self-perception of internal control was measured by means of Rotter's Internal-External Locus of Control Scale (Rotter, 1966). Sex role preference in marriage and cohabitation was measured by means of the Index of Role Preferences (Scanzoni and Voelz, 1984). After the 12-week treatment program, the same five self-report instruments were again administered along with an exit interview to measure the degree of perspective transformation that had taken place. Six subjects and their spouses were followed up 12 weeks after termination of the treatment with the same posttest instruments. The Index of Spouse Abuse was administered only to the wife or partner whereas all other instruments were given to the subjects.

A pilot study was done initially to test the procedures for administering the instruments, to determine and insure interview and rater reliability and validity, and to note possible measurement problems with each of the instruments. The treatment program emphasized both cognitive and behavioral change elements and was designed to facilitate the process of perspective transformation.

The exit interview was used to determine degree of perspective transformation. This instrument was based upon the 10-step process of perspective transformation that Mezirow had observed to be present and the conditions that Mezirow had suggested should exist at the completion of a perspective transformation. Four evaluators trained in the analysis of interview data independently rated the tape recorded exit interviews of each subject on the degree to which he had undergone perspective transformation. Three of the four evaluators had no personal contact with the men. The independent ratings of the four evaluators intercorrelated well (r ranged from .63 to .92).

Description of the Data

T tests on pre- and post-tests means showed that significant change occurred over time on all of the variables in the direction of less physical and nonphysical abuse, internal locus of control, higher self-esteem, greater use of reasoning tactics, less verbal aggression and violence tactics, and egalitarian sex role preference in marriage.

Dividing the subjects into high and low perspective transformation groups and using t tests to determine if there were significant differences between means revealed a significant difference between the high and low groups on the physical abuse variable with the high perspective transformation group having changed the most toward using less physically abusive behavior over time. Although perspective transformation was not the most strongly associated variable with change in abusive behavior of all of the variables in the study, it did correlate significantly with change in physically abusive behavior ($r = -.41$, $p < .05$). Change in reasoning tactics, education and income of subject, and childhood exposure to parent-to-parent and parent-to-child abuse also related significantly with change in abusive behavior.

Multiple regression analysis was used to determine how the different variables in the study interacted together to explain the variance in physical and nonphysical abuse. Combined, perspective transformation, physical abuse, child-hood exposure to parent-to-child reasoning and parent-to-parent verbal aggression tactics, total income, and subjects' reasoning and violence tactics explained 83% of the variance in nonphysical abuse. Combined, perspective transformation, reasoning tactics, age of subject, childhood exposure to parent-to-child verbal aggression and parent-to-parent violence tactics, change in role preference, and educational level explain 77% of the variance in physical abuse.

The follow-up study of six subjects indicated a slight regression on most of the variables but with scores still well above the pretest scores. Because the intent of the study was exploratory, nonhypothesized relationships were explored which revealed significant relationships that can be studied in future research. Exposure to parent-to-child verbal aggression tactics in childhood related significantly and inversely to income level as an adult. Exposure to parent-to-child verbal aggression tactics and parent-to-parent verbal aggression tactics in childhood each related significantly and inversely to educational level. Subjects' educational level was related inversely to change in nonphysical abuse. Total income related significantly and inversely to change in nonphysical abuse. Change in use of reasoning tactics also related to change in self-esteem.

The abusive men all had a high degree of exposure to abusive behavior in their childhood. They reported high stress levels listing most frequently stressors of work, financial, children, wife, and relatives. Wife report data on abusive behavior of the subject did not relate significantly to the subject's self-report data on that behavior.

Conclusions

As a whole, it is suggested by these findings that subjects who present themselves for treatment of their abusive behavior toward their spouses or partners will change in the direction of less physical and nonphysical abuse, higher self-esteem, internal self-perception of control, greater use of reasoning tactics in conflict, less use of verbal aggression and violence tactics when in conflict, and greater egalitarian sex role preference. The subjects with higher change in perspective transforation will also change the most toward less use of physically abusive behavior. Subjects who had the greatest increase in the use of reasoning tactics would also have the greatest change toward less us of abusive behavior. The background of the batterer was also significant in predicting change in abusive behavior as well as age, education, income, and change in sex role preference.

It was concluded that this study revealed significant predictive power of change in abusive behavior and perspective transformation offers a viable theory for explaining the processes that led to spouse abuse and in understanding and facilitating the process of change from abusive behavior. It was suggested that future studies continue to approach this subject from a multivariate perspective. It was also suggested that wife-report data be used to correct for response bias in future studies on socially undesirable behavior.

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Abstract: Organizational structure and administration of three diverse collaborative efforts are examined through in-depth interviews. Issues, strengths and problems are identified. Recommendations for practice are made.

Statement of the Problem

The term collaboration has become a catch-all phase. It encompasses a multiplicity of definitions and activities under its conceptual umbrella. In its most simplistic form, collaboration accounts for the activity of working together on a common project. In other contexts, it has a more formal connotation, involving equitable outcomes and a series of processes.

The development of collaborative relationships is one of the "megatrends" of the future. According to Naisbitt (1982) and others it is becoming a survivors technique. Along with common usage, the literature, too, reflects a multiplicity of definitions which for the most part are experientially based on collaborative relationships modeled by business and industry. There is comparatively little which focuses on the non-profit sector, in particular. There is much to be learned from these collaborative partnerships which is applicable to collaborative efforts between non-profit community based agencies and higher education. However, given the unique character and financial needs of the non-profit community-based organization, its applicability is limited.

As adult educators reach out into settings which are non-institutional in nature, the likelihood is that adult educators will be developing more and more linkages between community-based non-profit organizations and insitutions of higher education.

Knowledge about how effective collaborative efforts are organized in the specific context of community-based nonprofit organization or agency would be helpful to improving the practice of adult educators. This paper addresses these concerns by: (1) examining the organizational structure and administrative functioning of different types of collaborative efforts, (2) analyzing issues and problems as well as the strengths of collaborative models as perceived by its participants, and (3) recommending ways to make strengthen collaborative efforts.

Establishing Definitions

Because of the broad use of the term collaboration, similar terms were analyzed and differientiated and a tentative definition established. A summary of these follows.

Four terms are used interchangeably: cooperation, network, linkage and collaboration. Cooperation is often used synonymously with collaboration. Cooperation means "working together toward mutual, collaboratively established goals" (Greenberg, 1982, p. 95). "Cooperation is the process of working with other organizations and individuals to achieve mutual benefits" (Beder, 1984, p.6).

Linkage is used to describe "contact points". Valentine (1984) points out:

> Linkages, in and of themselves, are neither good nor bad because there is nothing inherent in the concept "linkage" which denotes an exchange, as

opposed to a surrendering of program resources. (p.67)

Network is another term adding to the confusion. In the business sector, networking is characterized as "the dynamic use of contacts" (Kahn, 1986). "Building a network with other community agencies is essential if CBO's are to serve to communities (Easley, 1982, p.85).

Collaboration utilizes cooperation, networks and linkages to get its job done. There is a present growing need to work with external constituencies to "develop joint mechanism for manpower planning, nationally, regionally and locally" (Lynton, 1981, p.22). "Collaboration consists of the intentional formation and use of linkages to achieve an agency's goals" (Valentine, 1984, p.67).

Collaboration describes a relationship in which mutual benefit and purpose are top priorities. Effort is expended in order to achieve a common mission and becomes the process of collaboration. "Collaborative effort" becomes a descriptor of the collaboration process (Fingeret, 1984). There is a distinction between cooperation and collaboration. Both involve working together to achieve mutual goals and can be part of linkages and networks. The former, however, may not involve ongoing interaction or relationship of cooperators. It is often an isolated instance. The latter suggests planning, implementation and output, a relationship and time.

Partnerships are a way of organizing efforts to achieve a purpose. They rely on collaboration, cooperation and coordination. In addition, "in a partnership there is equity of both effort and outcome (Greenberg, 1981, p. 177)." Although there is disagreement on this point in actual practice, partnerships are an agreed means of carrying out work. It is one of the most widely utilized mechanisms by which the work of collaborative efforts goes forth.

The Context of the Study

The general diversity of collaborative effort universe provides an interesting context for study but is of limited utility when looking at the effort between non-profit community-based collaborative efforts with higher/adult education. Non-profits (also known as not-for-profits in some states) are unique in a number of different ways, most notably in its search for resources, and its binding legislation. Non-profit oganizations/agencies (public or private) exist for the purposes of delivering social services or pressing for social change/action. (Greenberg, 1982).

Non-profit community-based organizations are situated within the community for which they provide service. Community-based organizations (CBOs) are "partners serving the community"(Easley, 1982, p.83) and a "vital portion of the delivery system of education to many communities" (p.91)

Methodology

Collaborative efforts were identified through the use of newspapers, academic publications, social agency newsletters and personal and professional contacts. The range of collaborative efforts which emerged indicates that a variety of efforts are going throughout the country. For the most part, they exist in clusters or "pockets" of activity.

Three collaborative relationships were selected for study. The criteria for selection were diversity in nature and activity. All three partnerships deliver higher/continuing education to adults. One is a national network of partnerships which grew out of a community-based local organization. The partners are a social service agency, a private university. The second operates on a state level and is also "a vast partnership network", although its mission is set by a national parent organization. The partners are a land-grant college and community extension agency. The third operates soley at the local level. It offers education in non-profit management for the leaders of non-profit organizations in a program for upper-level executives. The partners include a school of management, a social service agency and a community foundation.

An interview schedule was developed for purpose of collecting data on the organizational structure, management, supervision, finance and marketing of the collaborative relationships. Areas of questioning were designed to elicit information relevant to problems, issues and strengths. The investigator interviewed principals in each of the three collaborative efforts individually. A total of eight individuals were interviewed for approximately 1 1/2 hours each. An abbreviated telephone interview was conducted with additional principal in order to clarify some points.

Description of the Data

Similarities and differences in organization and administration were examined using the areas of managment, supervision, finance and marketing as categories for analysis. The following is a summary description of those categories and a description of the strengths, problems and issues which emerged.

Management. Although there is formal recognition that a partnership has been established, organizational structure is characterized as informal on one or more levels. Both formal and informal collaboration results in achieving goals.

The key people in each organization are committed to the success of these efforts. Leaders mutually recognize each other and have clear expectations of each other's roles. Interpersonal relationships are established and characterized by ongoing, informal and open communication. A degree of freedom is maintained by the partners in their relationship with each other.

Ranges of authority vary depending on the partnership. Clear understanding of the parameters of authority exist. Although limits to authority have not been tested in any of the three partnerships, there are various checkpoints when nearing the limits (usually a board of directors). Inter-partner control mechanisms clearly have financial implications.

Effectiveness of the partnership management is connected to clear communication throughout the system - between the partners and filtering throughout the organizations.

Management prerogatives which are ceded depend on the goal of the partnership. Decision-making, autonomy, and organizational identity are maintained.

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Supervision. Supervision is a concern at level of implementation and varies according to organizational structure. There are no joint mechanisms for supervision because supervision is found at the intra-organizational level and not at the partnership level.

Conflict is as an intra-organizational issue and requires communication. When inter-organizational conflict arise, efforts at increasing communication, trust and respect are fostered.

Marketing. Partnerships attribute their existence today to keen awareness of the market. Information gathered from multiple sources is crucial to maintaining the partnerships and to the individual organization.All share the recognition of the importance of on-going needs assessment and effectively translate information from the field into program. Recruitment (both formal and informal) is carried on in a number of ways: brochures, pamphlets, word-of-mouth, media and newspapers. Each partner facilitates and supports the marketing of the collaborative effort.

Finance. The collaborative effort is not directly funded by its own budget. Funding comes from other sources. Procuring these dollars is a major focus and varies in each partnership.

Budgeting is done at the intra-organizational level and not directly for the collaborative effort. Budgeting for a specific project requires a separate effort and is handled in differently by each partnership..

Fiscal responsibility is assumed by one of the partners (as a support staff function), usually the program provider. Surplus funds rarely exist. Deficits do, however, and have to be funded by additional fundrasing or floaters from other budgets.

Strengths, Problems & Issues

The data reveal a number of common strengths, problems and issues for each collaborative effort. Common strengths include: (1) A clear and mutually well-defined mission or purpose of the partnership. (2) Programs which are relevant to organizations, participants and community. (3) Provision of a service, program, and information of interest and value to people to whom it is offered. (4) A record of success. (5) Promotion of voluntarism and leadership development within the community. (6) Opportunity for participants to immediately apply knowledge. (7) Programs which are in the self interest of the partners. (8) Positive effects on the partnership institutions. (9) Enhancement of professional expertise of the partnership. (10) Outreach to new populations. (11) Benefits greater than the program, i.e. impact on the quality of life in the community, in the world and for participants.

Problems raised revolve around issues of survival. These include: (1) Awareness of change in audience over time. (2) Worry about cost benefit of the expenditure in terms of time and energy. (3) Concern with continuation of resources. (4) Concern with reaching consensus.

Common issues identified by partners are "success", funding, "unrealized potential", leadership, tradeoffs and growth.

Conclusions

It is evident from the foregoing that, as Valentine (1984) suggests, considerable administrative foresight is required to make partnerships worthwhile. Knowledge of the factors which contribute to success of these collaborative could be helpful in facilitating collaboration efforts between higher/adult education and the non-profit sector. Among these are: (1) Joint planning and implementation with ongoing monitoring and evaluation. (2) Meeting individual and/or community needs by gathering good, accurate information. (3) Utilizing volunteers in the community on a meaningful level and seeking out personnel to help in training volunteers. (4) Recognizing the need to consider business strategies in program marketing. (5) Incorporating collaboration as a modus operandi of the organization. (6) Using a language of common understanding in the collaborative effort. (7) Seeking funds jointly. (8) Developing common visions of the future. (9) Being aware of larger societal issues and the need for change. (10) Having clear expectations of the partners. (11) Maintaining the "informal" although partner's organizations may be formal. (12) Insuring individual partners are well connected to other organizations. (13) Operating under an articulated organizational philosophy.

This investigation provides an in-depth look at three diverse partnerships engaged in "collaborative efforts" specifically in the context of non-profit community-based sector and higher/adult education. Analysis of interviews helps to clarify the term collaboration by suggesting some common factors which contribute to successful collaborative efforts. These factors exhibit none of the pitfalls of the unsuccessful models (Valentine, 1984; Fingeret, 1984). They serve as models of collaborative efforts which mitigate against the "administrative errors".

This study corroborates the findings of two researchers who have independently addressed collaboration and the non-profit sector (Beder 1984; Greenberg 1982). Collaborative relationships are characterized by a clear understanding of each partners' responsibility, well-defined program objectives and well-defined lines of communication (Beder in Darkenwald, 1983), agreements about values, overall philosophies, purposes, missions and goals (Greenberg, 1982). In addition, three characteristics are particularly salient in these partnerships: commitment, communication and strong human relationships.

These three collaborative efforts are instructive because are based on actual practice. They suggest that successful collaborative efforts are: action-oriented and purposeful, future oriented, mutually beneficial, achieve their purposes, good communicators, beneficial beyond the organizational partners, clear as to expectations and responsibilities from individual partners.

In the business and industrial sector, collaboration has long been a modus operandi. In the non-profit sector, collaboration is becoming the survivor's technique to mobilize human and financial resources. The success or failure of collaborative efforts is dependent on defining that process (Beder, 1984). This study is a beginning.

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SYMPOSIA

Symposium Title: Alternative Methodologies for Assessing Impact of Literacy Education Programs

Presenters: Harlan Copeland (Convener), Greta Ploetz, Mary Winterbauer,
University of Minnesota and Literacy Resources
Peter S. Cooksen, Pennsylvania State University
Robert A. Fellenz, Texas A & M University

ABSTRACT

The lack of data on the outcomes of adult literacy programs hampers efforts to obtain increased public and private support for literacy programs. By improving their understanding of research and evaluation methodologies which provide valid and reliable data on the results of literacy education efforts, adult educators can increase their effectiveness in justifying funds for programs, in extending literacy programs to new settings, and in strengthening existing programs.

The purpose of this symposium is to examine alternative research and evaluation methodologies for determining the impact of literacy education programs for adults. Naturalistic and empirical methods used in three different states will be compared and contrasted in terms of (1) indicators of impact studied; (2) obtaining subjects; (3) data collection methods; (4) methods of data analysis; and (5) nature of findings and conclusions obtained.

Each of the three studies has pursued different purposes and has utilized different research and evaluation designs and different data collection tools to identify and describe outcomes of one or more literacy education programs. In Minnesota, tests, surveys and interviews were used to measure four kinds of outcomes for participants in ABE, GED, high school diploma, ESL, and post-secondary remedial programs. In Pennsylvania, face-to-face and telephone interviews were used to measure the impact of ABE programs on the quality of life of welfare recipient women. Texas A & M studied ABE in Texas in a manner that would emphasize that adult education is basically a human enterprise using primarily on-site interviews of teachers, students, administrators and community leaders.

Assessing the Impact of Literacy Education Programs

Representatives of four literacy delivery systems in cooperation with the University of Minnesota Adult Education Program and Literacy Resources, Inc. initiated the Adult Literacy Impact Study in 1983. Literacy practitioners had emphasized a need for persuasive evidence about program impact to inform policy makers in public and private sectors. Questions such as: "What happens to students as a result of participation in literacy programs? What outcomes are obtained from existing program approaches?" led to two general purposes for the study: (1) documenting the impact of literacy programs for participants and for the community; and (2) developing and testing a data collection process involving literacy providers from the major delivery systems. The study was designed as a longitudinal project in which data would be collected as students entered and exited programs, and at one or more follow-up points after students

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completed their programs. The study was designed to work within the context in which literacy programs operate; the methodology accommodated these "real-life" constraints.

Four areas were selected for examining the impact of literacy education programs -- academic achievement, economic gains, community participation, and personal development. Specific indicators believed to impact on each of the four areas were selected to study.

Adults reading or computing below the 12th grade level comprise the subjects for this study. The adults are registered as students or assigned to tutors in one of five types of literacy programs. Each year fifteen instructors and tutors are recruited to participate in the study.

A Program Entry, a Program Exit, and Follow-up questionnaire were developed to measure the subject's behavior regarding the economic and community participation outcomes, and to acquire selected demographic information. Measures of academic achievement in reading comprehension and computation for native-born subjects are obtained from the Adult Basic Learning Examination (ABLE) instrument Levels 1,2 and 3 (Forms A and B). The Standard Test of English Language (STEL) was selected to measure achievement in grammar, usage, and vocabulary of foreign-born subjects. The Self-Assessment Scales (SAS) instrument was selected to provide a measure of seven dimensions of self-esteem.

Subjects complete the Program Entry, the Program Exit and the Follow-up questionnaires as appropriate to their progress in the program. In addition, all native-born subjects complete the SAS and the ABLE reading and/or computation test consistent with their program enrollment. Non-native born subjects are administered the STEL and the ABLE tests; they do not complete the SAS test because it is considered inappropriate for persons reared in other cultures. Entry and exit questionnaires and test instruments are administered by teachers/tutors. Follow-up questionnaires and instruments are administered by a paid interviewer to students who can be located and who agree to participate. A $10 stipend is paid to teachers who collect entry-exit data and to students completing follow-up interviews.

Strengths and limitations of the data collection process have been identified in terms of design, subjects, instrumentation, data collection, findings obtained, and project management. The strengths of the study are judged to be the longitudinal design; the definition of program impact in terms of indicators; the unobtrusive nature of the study; the voluntary participation by students; the involvement of teachers in the data collection process; the ability to obtain comparable data across different systems; the appropriateness of the instruments; and the kinds of data obtained. The limitations of the study and conditions requiring special attention are perceived to be the definition of indicators of students' community involvement; the ability to recruit volunteer tutors and their students for the study; the lack of a random sample; the analysis of Level 3 ABLE test data; the questionable value of the STEL instrument; the previous limited use of the SAS instrument; the lack of teacher skill in test administration; the number of students who leave before completing programs; the difficulty of locating students for follow-up data; and the necessity for continuing administrative and financial support.

MEASURING THE IMPACT OF ADULT BASIC EDUCATION ON THE QUALITY OF LIFE OF WELFARE RECIPIENT WOMEN

The aim of the research reported here is to study the impact of participation in publicly-funded ABE instruction on the quality of life of 150 female adult participants whose livelihood is solely dependent upon public welfare assistance. Data are to be collected longitudinally via telephone and face-to-face interviews at a minimum of two points in time: first, within two or three months of entry into the program and, second, between six and seven months following initial entry. Depending upon availability of funding, data may be collected at subsequent points in time. By the time of the second interviews, some respondents will have differentiated themselves into at least three categories: "completers," "persisters," and "non-completers." Subsequent life changes and perceptions of quality of life will be compared with previously recorded life circumstances and perceptions. Of particular interest are the differential effects of such participation on each of the three groups.

The Non-Equivalent Group Design

Ideally, the study design would have employed random assignment of treatment and on-treatment groups. Both groups, resembling each other on all pertinent characteristics save one—that of differential rates of exposure to ABE--could then be compared. Unfortunately, the ideal conditions common to the laboratory seldom occur in natural settings. To compensate for the impracticality of an experimental design, it was therefore decided to resort to the nonequivalent control group design as detailed by Judd and Kenny (1981, pp. 103-131).

This particular design relies on the natural formation of treatment and comparative groups. The treatment group in this study comprises those women who either remain in the ABE program until the completion of the tasks they set for themselves when first enrolling. The comparison group comprises those who, for a variety of reasons, choose to withdraw from the program prior to the attainment of their originally set objectives.

Of particular interest in conducting the "pre-test" will be the underlying basis of assignment of respondents to treatment and comparison groups. In an attempt to get at such assignment variables, respondents were queried about their background, initial impressions of numerous aspects of the program, and other circumstances of their lives. By identifying the variables responsible for completion, persistence, and non-completion--the basis of assignment to the three distinctive groupings—we will thus control the effects of the assignment variables. According to Judd and Kenny (1981, p. 116), when the effect of the assignment variable is the same on the pretest as on the posttest, change score analysis yields results equivalent to those of a repeated measures analysis of variance.

Data Collection Methods

Data for the study were collected via a structured interview schedule. From a pool of prospective respondents enrolled in an ABE program in Philadelphia, Harrisburg, Pittsburgh, and one rural community in Pennsylvania during the fall or winter of the current fiscal year who had returned "consent to be interviewed forms," the investigator randomly selected 150 women for interviews by either telephone or face-to-face.

Construction of the Interview Schedule. The interview schedule was prepared in accordance with the specifications of Dillman (1977) whose total design method calls for minimizing costs while maximizing rewards for respondents, in addition to establishment of trust that those rewards will be received (p. 12). Information relayed to prospective respondents stressed the relatively small amount of time required to answer the questions, emphasized the valuable contribution they could make to the success of of the study, and included a promise of a reward in the form of a nominal honorarium. Such information was relayed by their instructors in whom they had doubtlessly developed some confidence in the month or two of participation in the program.

A decision was made early to avoid the costly process of developing original measures of quality of life of uncertain reliability and validity. Likewise it was decided that the excessive time demands of implementing a qualitative or ethnographic research strategy were impractical within the period of the contracted support from the Pennsylvania Department of Education. Hence, the researcher turned to standardized measures of both mental health (Gurin, Veroff, and Feld, 1960) and life quality (Campbell, Converse, and Rodgers, 1976) which had been used in several national studies and an adult measure of locus of control (Nowicki and Duke, 1974, pp. 874-880).

One of the features of the telephone survey is that once it has begun, respondents are reluctant to decline to complete an interview. As long as questions are simple and call for a limited number of clearly stated response categories, telephone interviews can be a relatively inexpensive and highly efficient data collection method. Possible drawbacks include distractions in the respondent's setting and a possible biasing of the findings by exclusion from the study of respondents who do not have telephones at home. For participants without a home telephone, arrangements were made for the ABE program to provide access to a private office telephone.

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An Evaluation of a Human Enterprise: ABE in Texas

In 1974 the state of Texas recognized the need to support the efforts of its adult residents to gain a basic education by dedicating over $2,000,000 of its state funds to the support of Texas Adult Basic Education programs. This support led to program growth throughout the state, which in turn spurred increased funding by the legislature. By 1983 the appropriation had increased to $7,275,000.

One purpose of this study, which was co-directed by Gary J. Conti and Robert A. Fellenz, was to assess the impact of this 10 years of state funding on the basic education program. Because Texas is also the recipient of approximately $5,000,000 annually in federal ABE funds, a second objective of the study was to evaluate the state's general plan for the use of this money. The guiding question for both aspects of the study became: Is there a comprehensive basic education program available to the adults of Texas?

In conceptualizing a design for the evaluation, several assumptions were posed by the directors. The primary one was that education is a human enterprise. As such it is a program that not only affects students in both the cognitive and affective domains but also depends mainly upon human interaction for that effect. Consequently, the design of the study must be sensitive to the to the people involved in the program. Another assumption basic to the design was that the evaluation would be of greatest use to the people of Texas if it were formative as well as summative in nature. This seemed to demand a naturalistic approach for, although quantitative data could be assembled in sufficient volume to judge the success of the program, interaction with the people involved was essential to generate the insight demanded to search out directions for improvement.

"In order to be effective, evaluation designs must properly reflect the nature of the enterprise being evaluated and the overall purpose for which the evaluation was initiated (Fellenz & Conti, 1984, p. 1)." The interpersonal nature of basic education and the recognition of 10 years of state funding called for interaction with the people involved. Thus, extensive on-site visits were planned for the evaluation team. However, because of the complex nature of the Texas program and the need to record growth and development, quantitative measures were also designed.

Ten of the 53 ABE co-ops (Texas administrative units) were selected for on-site visits by the evaluation team. Structured interview schedules were developed and used with approximately 100 students, 66 teachers, and 25 administrators in these sites. In addition, 13 interviews were conducted with "historical figures," i.e., ABE personnel that had exercised leadership roles in Texas during the 10 years of state funding. During the on-site visits the evaluation team also used available opportunities such as visits to classes, meetings with presidents or superintendents, and attendance at advisory committee meetings to gather supplemental data.

Survey data were gathered from administrators, teachers, students, and linkage agencies. All 53 co-op directors were mailed a two-part questionnaire asking for demographic data and for information relating to planning, policy making, instruction, linkages, recruitment, staff development, and special projects. A sample of

350 teachers was randomly selected from the available mailing list of 1,800 current teachers. This 36 item questionnaire solicited information on personal background, curriculum, instruction, students, materials, facilities, evaluation, and staff development. Survey data were also gathered from current and former students. Six current student questionnaires were included with each teacher survey and six former student with each administrator survey with a request for representative distribution. Both forms were short and solicited input on reasons for participation and benefits gained, a self description, and comments. Linkages between community agencies and the ABE program were assessed by a random mail sampling of 1,155 Texas public libraries, employment commission offices, chambers of commerce, sheriffs' offices, school superintendents, and manpower programs. These short, six question forms sought the input of community leaders on their perceptions of the local ABE program.

Data analysis of the quantitative input was accomplished through standard procedures on the mainframe computer. The interview data demanded special handling. A system was devised through which the five project members who had conducted interviews could code by key word those parts of the interview they felt were vital. These statements were entered into a dBase II system, noting the job title and co-op of the interviewee. This made it possible to call up by key word and/or job role or location all of the relevant statements made in the interviews regarding any topic. Integrating dBase II with Wordstar facilitated the writing of a report based on the actual quotations of people throughout the state.

The final report with its conclusions and recommendations also testified to the conceptual framework upon which the study was based. For example, the findings included reports on areas not specified in the original plans for on-site interviewers heard something special, noted it, and followed-up on the thought in subsequent interviews. Similarly, conclusions were not based on statewide means but rather allowed for distinctions to be made according to demographic and personnel variables. Recommendations, in turn, were able to address the complex situations that exist in the field and went beyond generalized statements to specific suggestions for improvement. Ultimately, the study justified a major assumption on which it was based: "Adult Basic Education is essentially a human enterprise. The essence of the teaching/learning situation is the relationship among the individuals involved in the enterprise. . . . The final result of the learning activity is also essentially human for it is not tests passed or content learned that frees the participant to grow, but rather it is the growth in self that frees the learner to be and to do (Fellenz & Conti, 1984, p. 94-5.)"

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Symposium
The Ends and Means of Adult Literacy Education

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Introduction (Hiemstra)

Much of the attention that has been focused on literacy education rests on the simplistic notions that illiteracy is a well-defined evil that hampers individual and societal development and literacy is an equally well-defined good that automatically fosters such development. The uncritical acceptance of such notions suggests that all educational efforts designed to enhance literacy share a common goal and employ similar approaches. Even a cursory review of existing literacy programs reveals many observable differences, including such factors as target population, instructional method, and organizational affiliation. On closer examination, however, it becomes apparent that these "surface" characteristics are indicative of more fundamental, but often unarticulated, conceptual and political considerations which undergird program structure and have profound impacts on both the process and outcomes of adult literacy education.

It is the purpose of this symposium to critically evaluate two models of literacy education. The first model, and the dominant one in American society, espouses an individual orientation to literacy education; illiteracy is perceived as an individual deficit, and education is seen as a means of individual betterment. The second model, which is receiving increasing attention in the literature, espouses a community-based approach to literacy education; illiteracy is perceived as the product of the broader social structure, and education is viewed as a means of group empowerment and social change. In order to gain insights into the relationship between the two models, they will be further examined in two position papers, with the first paper focusing on the differences between the two models and the second attempts to find the common ground.

Individually-Oriented Literacy Programs (Valentine)

The undergirding assumption of individually-oriented adult literacy programs is that _individuals who improve their literacy_ skills will be able to improve their social and economic positions in society. I call this apparently common-sensical statement an assumption rather than a fact, because we simply do not know if it is true. We believe that it is true, partially because of the observed correlation between educational attainment and socio-economic status and partially because, for educators in a notoriously unequal society, it is a remarkably comfortable belief. Of the constellation of social ills that describe the disadvantaged in American society, illiteracy is at once the least embarrassing to our image of a democracy and the most easily addressable within the existing system. Illiterates, unlike other victims of systematic bigotry, can be held accountable for their condition and, in the best spirit of rugged individualism, can, through dedication and effort, change that condition. Cynically stated, in our lofty magnanimity, we not only forgive the youthful errors and acculturated lassitude of illiterate adults, but go so far as to offer them a second chance through literacy education in a variety of forms.

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Individually-oriented programs, while demonstrating considerable diversity in respect to program design and instructional method, possess certain invariant features that grow out of the basic assumption discussed above. These features include the following:

1. A recognition of illiteracy as an individual problem comprising not only the obvious cognitive elements, but attitudinal and motivational elements as well.

2. A focus on teaching literacy skills at a remote from the social context in which learners reside.

3. Tacit or overt support of the status quo; learners seek to improve their lot in the existing social system by improving their literacy skills.

4. Disregard for the social causes of illiteracy. The nature of the skills deficit, rather than the origins of the deficit, defines the scope of instruction.

There are three other interrelated features which, though all too common, are noticably absent from the best literacy programs. These features grow out of the same undergirding assumption, but with a misguided emphasis on basic, rather than applied, skills and an unwarranted belief that "reading" and "literacy" are one and the same. They are:

5. A disregard for the way literacy is used by individuals in their adult roles.

6. A belief that illiteracy in diverse learners can be remedied with standardized instruction, either in the form of a uniform curriculum or mass produced (school-like) materials.

7. A near absence of learner control and collaborative planning.

Thus far, I have looked at the negative programmatic consequences of a single assumption about the power of literacy. This same assumption, however, also provides the basis for certain undeniable strengths of individually-oriented programs -- strengths that are often missing from programs with a different orientation. These strengths are as follows:

1. Clarity of mission. Learners, educators, and policymakers all agree that this is an enterprise devoted to skill development in individuals.

2. Stability. Because they have a clear mission, acceptable to the status quo and politically non-threatening, such programs can gain the support they need to proliferate and survive.

3. Learners can see immediate results of their educational efforts; further, the results are enduring because they reside in an individual and are not group or situation dependent.

I have said that we do not know if the undergirding assumption of individually-oriented programs is true. I say now that I know, from my own research and that of others, that participants in such programs do, in fact, improve their social and economic lot in society. This seeming conflict is easily explained, however, by the fact that we do not know if observed benefits result from simple skill improvement or from enhanced self-esteem resulting from a program that applauds and reinforces individual effort in the quest of middle class rewards and values.

Community-Based Literacy Programs (Ilsley)

The United States cannot become a literate society under present circumstances. At least that is the claim of leaders of community-based literacy programs. Leaders such as Kozol, Zachariadis, Heaney, and Curtis stress that real gains in adult literacy require political solutions, not merely technical ones. What is the definition of a community-based program? Are there factors that make them truly unique to other forms of adult literacy education? In the United States as many as 300 adult literacy programs can be classified as community-based. As such, they meet a number of the following criteria (Zachariadis, 1983):

1. Such programs serve a definable constituency, such as migrant workers, unemployed steel workers, displaced homemakers, and latina housewives. Claims are made the

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community-based programs reach students adult basic education and literacy volunteer programs do not, or the least educated.

2. Community-based programs typically do not receive funding from traditional sources, nor do they rely on larger organizations for managerial guidelines.

3. Program objectives commonly include economic and social self-sufficiency of students and their community. Methods for achieving this goal vary considerably, from job skill training to promotion of solidarity. As a result, "subject matter" might include voter registration, parents' councils and tenants' rights organizations.

4. The "curriculum" is cast in a light of political change, with the conviction that through learning individuals can challenge the status quo and improve society for themselves.

The efficacy of the above model notwithstanding, it is clear that community-based programs receive comparably little attention in the literature and from funding agents. Must they be so hidden from public view? What are the unique issues of these programs, their tradeoffs, in the quest for legitimacy? Lastly, how can adult educators help the establishment increase their tolerance for political programs?

In the definitional model presented above, there is inherent ambiguity about community-based literacy programs. Any program that meets these criteria is deemed "community-based." Yet it appears that community-based programs have something more in common than mere program characteristics: the goal of overtly changing the context of learners. Though reading may be a goal for students, in a pure sense, it is a means for the achievement of a goal for the greater good. Thus, women in San Antonio might learn reading, but the words they learn are from leases. The greater goal is to work for renters' reform.

When the population of a program is defined, the purposes are as well. As such, choices regarding the purposes of a literacy program, i.e., reading, problem-solving, community action, are linked with choices of scope of a program. The question, "Which non-reading adults should be served?" is related to "What problems are going to be addressed?" The answer to these questions depends on how literacy is to be defined. When literacy is defined in the context of political action, the corresponding choice of scope is to seek a homogeneous group, or a group that can be accorded a similar status, a shared set of conditions, or common goals. Political action programs, judging from the evidence gathered from interviews, are sacrificial. That is, despite a strong need for traditional sources of funding, they might opt out of the mainstream in favor of consistency of purpose. It is unlikely that a true community-based program would form binding linkages with school districts, law enforcement agencies, vocational-technical institutes, and other common institutions.

It is in this sense that community-based programs differ sharply from the community education movement, which is founded on the fundamental belief that public education should be expanded to include as many citizens, and as many community institutions as possible. When a literacy program is intentionally heterogeneous, as is J-CARP, Literacy Volunteers of America, and Laubach, not to mention the majority of adult basic education programs, they cannot serve the expressed or felt political needs of the constituency without resorting to supporting the general *status quo*. The sheer diversity of the typical student population of such program precludes such a possibility. In contrast to some assertions, the label "community-based," as it is presented here, cannot be easily applied to programs that do not attempt to change the *status quo*.

In conclusion, apparently, the most popular definitions of community-based literacy are juxtaposed with other forms of adult literacy education, just as "andragogy" has been defined as an alternative to "pedagogy." Writers seem to understand what community-based literacy programs do *not* do. Hopefully, a more useful definition will soon find the light of day. But it will not happen, because the leaders of community-based programs will resist it, under greater tolerance for political models of adult illiteracy occurs.

Irreconcilable Differences Between the Two Program Models (Hayes)

The community-based model represents neither a minor variation in program design nor a new instructional technology, but a distinctly different way of looking at adult literacy education. First and foremost, the *mission* of community-based programs is markedly different from that of individually-oriented programs. The latter seeks to equip the individual to function in the existing social system, while maintaining a stance of political neutrality; the former, through direct political action, seeks to empower groups of individuals to confront and change the *status quo*. In community-based programs, the social context in which learners reside becomes the central focus of instruction. Literacy in these programs refers not to mere reading and writing skills, but to the host of strategies which enable people to control their lives through collective action. Consequently, the roles adult educators can play in such programs are necessarily different than in individually-oriented programs; domesticating education, under the control of paternalistic (if benevolent) "teachers," gives way to learning guided by group self-determination and decision-making, with the adult educator serving primarily as a resource person.

In Search of the Common Ground (Snow)

Educational policy and educative practices within the context of a liberal democratic society such as our own should be subject to varying levels of analysis. These, in turn, can inform different understandings of the perplexities of adult literacy education and its purpose in a democratic polity. Thus, if we expand our levels of analysis, it will be apparent that both individually-based and community-based approaches contain some overlap. For example, both serve to acculturate adults within a society; both include a pedagogy of skill development; both address an inequality of communicative competencies; both are concerned with issues of social mobility and social integration; and both are partially or wholly committed to the goal of bettering individual situations within an ever-changing world.

Furthermore, if we view these seemingly disparate approaches to adult literacy within a unique socio-historical context of America, it becomes clear that they are like siblings competing for "air time" and scarce resources. That is, though they may not always get along, they have similar roots and a necessary, if not complementary, relationship to each other. Both the sovereignity of the individual and the political efficacy of definable constituencies must play an important role in defining the mission of adult educators in a pluralistic democracy.

Thus, I would like to suggest that adult educators not accept the aforementioned division which puts community-based and individually-oriented literacy programs at opposite ends of an ideological continuum. Rather, given the acknowledged extent of the problem, it would seem that both have a responsibility to develop channels of cooperation toward the mutual goal of providing education for functionally illiterate adults.

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Using Research on Women to Reshape Concepts about Adult Learners and Learning

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Research by and about women emphasizes new methodologies and new frameworks of understanding. Findings modify methodological and theoretical constructs derived from male-identified research.

Expanding theory about adult learners and learning: Using research about women to reformulate theoretical constructs - Meyer

Feminist researchers often focus on Rich's (1979, p. 35) concept of re-vision, "the act of looking back, of seeing with fresh eyes, of entering an old text from a new critical direction." They suggest that we look again not simply at text, but at basic theoretical constructs, approaching these constructs from a new critical direction. This direction will come from what we, as women, know about ourselves and what we are learning, through our research, about ourselves and each other. What research tells us about women should be taken beyond re-vision to reconceptualization. That is, not simply modification of theory to allow for the "differences" from a male norm represented by women, but a reexamination of the basic premises, derived from research by and about men, that underlie theory. This process would lead to a reconstruction that would better reflect what we know about men and women and would acknowledge the contribution of what we have learned about women to how we think about all people.

This process of re-vision and reconceptualization will be discussed in terms of career development theory, self-concept and human development theory and educational theory. In the area of career development, the process can be traced from Super's (1957) initial linking of self-concept and occupational choice to Gottfriedson's (1979) and Astin's (1984) reconceptualization of women's career development and design of alternate paradigms. In education, the focus on differences between men and women emerges as an important issue with

Gilligan's (1977, 1979, 1982) work and is most recently seen in the work of Belenky, Clinchy, Goldberger and Tarule (1985).

Although Super's career development theory was based on research with male undergraduates, it has served as a basis for thinking about the career concerns of both men and women. His thinking about women centered around child rearing as the modal occupational choice and he linked self-concept for women to this sociologically and biologically determined destiny. Thus, of six career patterns he postulates for women, one centers on work and three on homemaking. He links the two remaining patterns, combining work and homemaking responsibilities, to economic necessity. During the '60s and '70s, a number of small studies by women explored the relationships among women's roles, the circumstances surrounding self-concept change and the effects of multiple roles. Longitudinal studies of career and human development also began to emerge following the work of Levinson (1978). Although these studies expanded small portions of Super's theory, alternate paradigms did not emerge. Recently, Gottfriedson (1979), Astin (1984) and Hackett and Betz (1981) have, based on what has been learned about women, reconstructed career theory and proposed alternate paradigms that describe men and women. They have relied on traits identified as "female", including contextual thinking, to propose theories that take into account life circumstances and available opportunities as basic to career development.

In human development and in education, as in career development, theories have been based on research on men generalized to describe "all people." The criteria for psychological soundness, for example, were based on a male ideal. Women were caught in the double bind of being judged abnormal if they met the male norm and ineffectual if they met the female norm. Patterns of thinking identified in young girls were labeled as less developed than those of boys because girls tended to rely on circumstances, or context, in making decisions rather than formulating rules of justice. Gilligan's work provided the first indications that this may represent a more advanced way of reasoning. Belenky, Clinchy, Goldberger and Tarule (1985, p. 10) argue that this focus on male-identified patterns and norms has prevented us from learning about "connection, intimacy, collaboration, contextual thinking and notions of responsibility and mercy in either men or women."

Recent work in adult education seems to emphasize some of the qualities identified above as "female" ways of thinking as representing ideals for teaching and facilitating adult learning. Connections remain to be made between findings about women's thinking and the methodological issues suggested by Mezirow, Friere, Apple and Giroux and Aaronowitz.

Feminist theory-building: A new framework for understanding the nature of white working-class women as learners - Luttrell

Feminist scholarship has provided adult educators an important framework for addressing the needs of women. There are rich and diverse bodies of literature which encompass many academic disciplines suggesting that men and women have fundamentally different experiences and perspectives about school, work, family, and community life (Bernard, 1973; Gilligan, 1982; Kanter, 1977). But while feminist literature has examined significant differences between men and women, it has not adequately compared women to women. Instead, the research has focused primarily on the experiences of white, middle-class women and then applied to all other women as the norm.

Specificaly, the research on women and education is fragmented and does not offer a wholistic approach in which the factors of gender, class, culture, opportunity structure, and the organization of work are considered. Feminist accounts have focused on how women learn and think differently than men, which has has not done justice to the diversity of women learners (Bardwick, Douvan, Horner, Gutman, 1970; Stein and Bailey, 1976; Maccoby and Jacklin, 1974). On the other hand the best educational literature on cultural and class differences has focused on white, working-class and minority men (Sennett and Cobb, 1973; Ogbu 1974; Willis, 1977). Here it is argued that the actual opportunity structure available to working-class and minority men influences their educational behaviors and strategies based on their realistic expectations for the future. As a result, our current understanding of the complex set of social processes, including family, work and community, which affect adult women from different backgrounds, is obscured.

This presentation draws on a participant observation and in-depth interview study that explores the nature of white, working-class women learners - their reflections about past schooling, the tensions which catipulted them into school as adults and their current conflicts as adult learners. It presents a new framework for understanding working-class women learners which synthesizes complex forces which shape their lives. What is unique about the study is its emphasis on change. The women interviewed were at a point of transition because of changing external forces such as urban deterioration, industrial relocation, as well as more individual life transitions such as motherhood and divorce. The women interviewed were in flux, balancing new roles as women, learners, and workers as they seek to support themselves and their families in new ways. The study shows that their changing attitudes are complex and uneven - filled with both negative and positive images about their personal and intellectual capabilities. As these women return to school, they have had to alter previously held attitudes about social mobility, success, intelligence, the role of education, and their own roles as wives and mothers. The study suggests that the way of life, a collective pattern developed by women in their families and community is unravelling, forcing a reassessment of education and family life.

Finally, the presentation will argue that working-class women's perceptions of themselves and their relationship to society is not an individual or fixed psychological process.

Instead, the women's perceptions and experiences are analyzed as a dynamic process, shaped by their gender and class.

The gap between feminist and traditional research processes: The in-depth interview as one example - Persico

The Traditional Interview: Values and Conduct

The in-person in-depth interview is often regarded, vis a vis other methods of data gathering, as a more humane approach to social science research. However, even this process, which entails an encounter between two or more persons, has become objectified by the traditional model of research. In methodology texts which detail the interview process the researcher is described as the tool or instrument. As such, the researcher must develop and fine tune particular behaviors so as to be comparable to other researchers; so that his/her results are comparable to the results of others (Goode and Hatt, 1952).

The interview is a specialized form of conversation; a pseudo-conversation in which one person asks the questions and the other answers. Only those responses that are similar to those elicited in other interviews are considered significant in terms of the research findings. Discussion which strays from the initial research questions is seen as extraneous, is discouraged in practice and eliminated from research reports (Kahn and Cannell, 1957).

A successful interview is one where the researcher is "friendly, but not too friendly." Experts offer potential interviewers advice on how to establish rapport with respondents. It is assumed that with the proper "rapport" the interviewee will accept the interviewer's research goals and will behave appropriately to aid the researcher in his/her quest for relevant information.

Passivity and submissiveness are required of the interviewee. Direction and control are the goals of the interviewer. Both the researched and the researcher must be socialized into the correct interviewing behavior.

Asking questions of the researcher constitutes behavior that properly socialized respondents are not supposed to emit. Most researchers and textbook writers do not offer evidence as to the extent to which this may occur; however, they warn against its dangers.

The possibility that the researcher's opinions may bias the respondent's answers motivates such advice. Bias is viewed as contaminating the research results because the interviewer's opinions might affect what could otherwise be a different response from the interviewee.

In her critique of the traditional interview, Oakley (1981) characterizes it as: a mechanical instrument of data collection; a specialized form of conversation in which one person asks the questions and the other responds; the interviewees are essentially passive individuals; and the interviewer is reduced to a question-asking and rapport-promoting mechanism.

The values of the "proper interview" include objectivity, detachment and hierarchy. Within this framework, the "poor interview" is composed of subjectivity, over-involvement, and the inability to compare data across individuals and research projects. The polarities of the proper and improper interviews reflect the polarities of perceived stereotypic male and female characteristics.

The Feminist Interview: Values and Conduct

Feminism is an attempt to insist upon the experience and very existence of women. By insisting upon the visibility of women feminism can not and does not pretend to be unbiased or value-free in its ideology nor in its methodologies. By challenging the dominant ideology, feminism creates the possibility for a non-sexist methodology; one that recognizes women as distinct from men and from each other, rather than one that studies men, excludes women and then generalizes findings to all humankind.

Secondly, feminism can not be true to itself while conducting research "on" women. This would only serve to continue the objectification of women. Rather, a feminist approach to the creation of knowledge must constitute research "for" women. That is, the goal of feminism must be to create knowledge that leads to change. This can only be achieved when the research process is a collaborative one; challenging the traditional hierarchy of the researcher and those (subjects/objects) researched.

Thirdly, if the goal of feminism is social change, then the researcher must be willing to share the research process and results with other women. She must be willing to be both the researcher and the researched. She must create the conditions for "intersubjectivity" (Westkott 1979). That is, the researcher must compare her work with her own experience as a woman and as a social scientist, she must share these with the researched, who will in turn add their opinions to the research, which may change it.

Finally, rather than diminishing the assumed feminine qualities of sensitivity, intuition, attachment and emotion, these qualities can transform the research process and results. By recognizing the interaction of facts and feelings, by combining the resources of emotion with the capabilities of observation and analysis, a more complex reality may be discovered.

As an antithesis to the traditional interview model, the feminist approach must:

generate a collaborative approach which engages both the researcher and the researched in a joint enterprise;

respond to rather than avoid respondent reactions to the interview situation -- no intimacy without reciprocity -- the researcher responds to questions about herself, the project, advice and information;

perceive the interviewer as an instrument, not for data gathering, but for the promotion of a sociology of women;

value emotions, attachment, involvement, and intuition;

and extend interviews to more broadly based social relationships leading to collectivization, mobilization and social change.

If the goals of feminism include the validation of women's subjective experience, then a gap is created between feminist and traditional methodology. A methodology which prescribes objectivity and detachment cannot serve the goals of feminism. If we want research that will contribute to women's liberation, then we have to scrutinize our methods more carefully to see if they are congruent with feminist principles. Thus, the claim that research for women is conducted with a feminist perspective can only be made when the methods applied take women's subjective experience into account.

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POSTER SESSIONS

Poster Presentation: A Case for Qualification - Interviewing for Improved Instructional Design in Health Education

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Individualized instructional design has long been a tenet of adult educators, especially the andragogists, yet it has largely been ignored in a major area of adult education research: health education.

Research in smoking cessation, in particular, is prolific, yet it has concentrated on smokers enrolled in formal smoking cessation programs regardless of the fact that 90-95% of Americans who have stopped smoking since 1964 did so without participating in any program. (These individuals are known in the smoking literature as self-changers.) The two predominant strategies used in these programs are supportive group therapy and aversive behavior modification. There has been little theoretical basis for determining what type of individual might be best served by which approach, a fact that may contribute to the programs' one-year success rate of only 20-25%.

Contrast that with the one-year success rate of 88% found in one study of self-changers, and it becomes obvious which group should be studied to discover successful cessation strategies and their possible interaction with personality and smoking habits.

The problem, of course, is how to study this population of self-changers. This is the main cause of their neglect. Quantitative methods do not lend themselves to the collection of such a depth and breadth of data as is needed from these subjects. A few studies have been conducted using surveys and structured interviewing, but the focus has been on single factors or aspects of smoking sustenance and/or cessation rather than the gestalt of these complex behaviors. Intensive open-ended interviewing with self-changers appears to be the most appropriate method for obtaining information that may lead to more individualized and therefore more effective intervention help, in addition to contributing to the knowledge base in adult health education.

Ten interviews with a variety of self-changers were conducted as a foray into this methodology. The smoking/life histories obtained were taped and transcribed verbatim for analysis. Both the idiographic and nomothetic approaches to life histories were employed to search for patterns within and among the cases. The results lend support to a variety of theories and models in the smoking literature, but indicate that the hope for one unified smoking cessation program is probably vain.

EXPLORING THE VALUE OF AGING: A SURVEY OF UNIQUE DEVELOPMENTAL TASKS FOR THE OLDER ADULT

by Alma Lee Hanson and Madeline Rugh

The content of educational programs for "the elderly" is based on a social model that is largely recreational, based on the assumption that older adults have no other purpose. We have had so little time to accustom ourselves to our own longevity, to living so long and so well that several careers and multitudinous interests might be embraced by a single individual. In-depth educational programming will be critical to the future of a rapidly aging population, but first must come a more inclusive image of aging as a unique time in life with its own set of challenges.

Developmental literature proposes stages in life where tasks are presented for resolution, but there is relatively little research on special tasks for the older adult. Moody incorporates Erikson's eighth stage of Integrity vs. Despair with Jung's Individuation, to conclude that the fundamental developmental task of old age is "to encounter who we are." For some older adults this might require a temporary disengagement to facilitate introspection and integration of life experiences, while others may gather listeners for reminiscence life review (Butler). Still other older adults are afraid to use such methods lest they become lonely or lost in the past. Education for older adults must include acceptable methods for self-encounter, as well as new ways of accepting that aging self once encountered.

This research proposes that it is now time to ask older adults what they perceive as current tasks or crises and what methods they have used to resolve them. The survey currently being developed asks for open-ended responses to: (1) their participation or interest in activities, from a list of typical "leisuretime" programs as well as a composite of developmental, therapeutic and lifelong learning items (2) life events they are experiencing or have recently resolved, from a list of life changes and developmental tasks/crises (3) if any of the life events affected their interest or participation in the activities, (4a) if so, did the change of activity help meet the challenge of that life event (4b) if not, is there another activity that might have made a difference?

From pilot studies, a sample of 400 "senior citizens" in community education classes is expected to perceive relationships between their activities and the events in their lives, while samples of less active older adults is expected to produce a less active pattern of task resolution. The nature of different interactions requires both descriptive research and eventual program evaluation of ongoing education for our aging population.

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

Poster Presentation

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Entering a Nursing Home as a Life Transitional Period

Individuals who are about to enter a nursing home experience one of the transitional periods of life. This study will examine this critical period to ascertain if the transition is eased by advance preparation and notification.

Two perspectives will be used in the study. First of all the study will look at K. Patricia Cross' COR (Chain-of-Response) model. One variable in her model of understanding participation in adult learning activities is that of life transitions. The second perspective is that of Aslanian and Brickell when they refer to transitions as opportunities for adult learning. If these life transitions are key periods, then learning can indeed take place, i.e. informing the person involved of the proposed change can affect the adjustment of that person.

It is hypothesized that the longer the time period of notification before the individual enters the nursing home, the more positive the adjustment by that person as he/she makes the transition into the home. This study has not been completed and therefore the conclusions are not available at this time.

The methodology will be to administer the "Salamon-Conte Life Satisfaction in the Elderly Scale" to individuals in the nursing home and compare those scores to the notification period as defined below. Persons notified from six months to sixty days, less than sixty days to one week and less than one week will make up the three distinct groups which will be compared to the scores on the above scale. In addition interviews will be conducted with staff and individuals in the above tested groups in an attempt to determine the ease of transition and/or the quality of adjustment.

The data will be gathered from at least two nursing homes in the community. The data base will be formulated from the interviews and test scores as well as demographic information which will be gathered.

Educationally, if the above hypothesis is validated, then early notification would help adults in this critical transitional period and efforts could be made to educate individuals who will be entering this stage of life. Scientifically this would, in a small way, add some support for the model of Cross and the study of Aslanian and Brickell regarding life transitions as potential opportunities for significant adult educational experiences.

"Is preferred language system as defined in neuro-linguistic programming the missing element in individualizing reading programs?"

As far back as 1888, educators have promoted the concept of individualizing instruction. Developmental, or remedial classes in reading have been offered at many colleges over the years, and most are developed under the guise of individualization. Is it possible, however, that by failing to identify a student's primary language representational system, the teacher is failing to utilize that one piece of information that would aid in truly individualizing the program?

Neuro-linguistic programming (NLP) promotes the concept that individuals possess a preferred language style that corresponds to their preferred learning style. By identifying students' learning styles and attempting to use the information in classroom communication and interaction, both the learning that is taking place and communication between student and teacher are enhanced. Until the Language System Diagnostic (LSD) was recently developed, however, assessment of an individual's preferred style was generally made by one of two methods: (1) observation of eye movements, or (2) attention to the individual's choice of verbal predicates. Both methods have proved to be fairly unreliable. The LSD is the first pen and paper test to differentiate the auditory from the visual from the kinesthetic.

The purpose of this study was to discover if groups of learners identified as primarily visual, auditory, or kinesthetic are unintentionally "favored" in a developmental reading class situation, or whether individual learning style differences are accommodated with all groups making comparable reading gains over the semester.

In a developmental reading class, emphasis should be placed on reading as a meaningful act associated with clearer and more effective communication. Using the NLP concept of identifying students' primary language representational systems to develop clearer communication may supply the element that has been missing in truly individualized reading programs.

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